

TEACHERS' MANUALS

GRAMMAR



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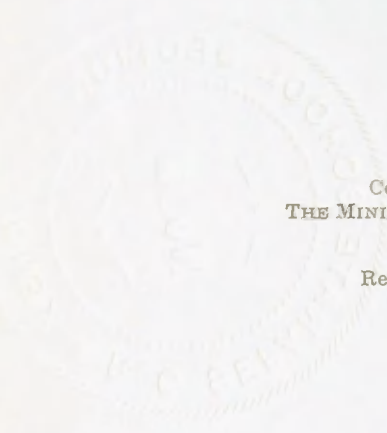
ONTARIO
TEACHERS' MANUALS

GRAMMAR



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CONTENTS

CHAPTER I	PAGE
Introduction.....	1
What is Grammar.....	1
Scope of Grammar, The.....	3
Why Grammar Should be Taught.....	4
When to Begin Grammar.....	8
 CHAPTER II	
Method of Grammar, The.....	10
Participle, Lesson on.....	10
I Preparation.....	10
II Problem.....	10
Presentation.....	11
III Selecting and Relating.....	11
IV Development.....	12
V Name.....	12
VI Explanation.....	13
VII Application.....	13
Steps in the Developing Lesson.....	14
Place of the Definition in Grammar.....	17
Other Kinds of Lesson.....	18
I Review Lesson, The.....	19
II Application Lesson, The.....	20
Use of the Text-book, The.....	20
Suggestions for the Teacher of Grammar.....	22
 CHAPTER III	
Course for Form III.....	27
Lesson Outlines.....	27
Sentence, The, Lesson.....	28
Classes of Sentences, Lesson.....	31
Parts of the Sentence, Lesson.....	33
Analysis.....	35
 CHAPTER IV	
Course for Form III—Continued.....	38
Parts of Speech, The.....	38
Noun, Lesson.....	38
Verb, Lesson.....	40
Modifiers, Lesson Plan.....	41
Adjective.....	44
Adverb, Lesson.....	45
Connectives.....	47

CHAPTER V	PAGE
Course for Form IV.....	48
Complete and Incomplete Verbs, Lesson.....	48
Object and Subjective Completion, Lesson.....	51
Analysis.....	54
Graphic Analysis.....	56
Kinds of Sentence, The.....	57
Simple and Complex, Lesson.....	57
Noun Clause, Lesson.....	61
Phrases.....	62
Preposition, Lessons.....	63
Conjunction, Lesson.....	67
CHAPTER VI	
Classification of Parts of Speech.....	71
Classification of Nouns.....	71
Classification of Pronouns.....	72
Relative or Conjunctive Pronoun, Lesson.....	73
Topical Review Lesson.....	75
Classification of Adjectives.....	77
According to Meaning, Review Lesson.....	77
According to Form—Comparison.....	78
Classification of Verbs, Lesson.....	79
Infinitive, Lesson.....	83
CHAPTER VII	
Inflection.....	88
Derived Forms, Lesson.....	89
Inflected Forms.....	91
Nouns and Pronouns, Inflections of, Lesson.....	93
Verb, Inflections.....	98
Special Cases.....	100
Mood, Lesson.....	101
CHAPTER VIII	
Verb Phrases.....	106
Auxiliary and Principal Verbs, Lesson.....	106
Uses of Shall and Will.....	110
Progressive and Perfect Verb Phrases, Lesson.....	111
Emphatic Verb Phrase.....	112
Uses of May, Might, Should, and Would.....	112
Subjunctive Verb Phrase.....	113
Passive Verb Phrase, Lesson.....	115
Review Lesson on Verb Phrases.....	119
CHAPTER IX	
How to Deal with Errors and Difficulties.....	120
Correction of Sentences, The.....	126

CONTENTS

v

CHAPTER X	PAGE
Form V and the Continuation School.....	130
Nominative Absolute Case, Lesson.....	132
Nominative Absolute Construction	134
Adverbial Objective, Lesson.....	135
Objective Predicate, Lesson.....	136
Uses of Gerundial Infinitive... ..	139
Expletive. The. Lesson.....	141
CHAPTER XI	
General Exercises.....	144
Sentence, The.....	144
Classes of Sentences	144
Parts of the Sentence.....	149
Parts of Speech.....	151
Special Classes of Words	151
Subordinate Clauses.....	152
Kinds of Phrases.....	153
Noun, The.....	154
Pronoun, The.....	158
Verb, The.....	161
Adjective, The	166
Adverb, The.....	169
Preposition, The.....	171
Conjunction, The.....	172
General Exercise.....	173
CHAPTER XII	
Extracts for Practice.....	175
INDEX.....	183



GRAMMAR

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

WHAT IS GRAMMAR?

IN the first century of the Christian era Quintilian defined grammar as "the art of speaking and writing a language with correctness and propriety." This conception of grammar prevailed among the leading teachers of Europe until about the middle of the nineteenth century. The result of this theory was that grammar came to consist largely of a long list of rules and definitions which must be committed to memory. With this knowledge the student was believed to be fully equipped to "speak and write the language" correctly and to judge of the correctness or incorrectness of the language used by others.

But as a matter of fact the old system was almost barren of the results expected. Boys and girls at school experienced the drudgery of memorizing definitions and rules and of endless parsing, but continued to use incorrect forms in their everyday speech.

Since 1850, however, grammar has come to be regarded in a new light, *that of a science*. A science concerns itself with some class of objects which it treats as subject-matter for study. Through observation and experiment it seeks to discover the facts connected with these objects, to set forth the laws and principles underlying those facts, and thus present them as systematized

and organized facts, that is, as knowledge. For example, the science of medicine is concerned with the facts of disease and health, the science of botany with the facts of plant life, the science of psychology with the facts of mind, or consciousness. As a science, therefore, grammar must present in the form of systematized knowledge a body of facts and principles which are met in connection with the class of objects called sentences.

It is evident that the sentence is the usual medium for the expression of thought in language; that it is, indeed, the smallest complete unit of language. It is also evident that language is the medium by and through which our thinking must take place, for no thinking beyond a most rudimentary kind is possible except by means of language.

Language itself may be considered from either of two sides. On the side of *form*, it is a series of sounds, as in spoken language, or of symbols representing these sounds, as in written or printed language; this is its phonic aspect.

On the side of *content* or *meaning*, language is an expression of human thought and feeling: this is its thought aspect.

But there is another phase of the study of language. The language of the people of any age naturally conforms to certain usages or customs which have become established through the necessity of speakers making themselves understood. The grammarian attempts to discover what these usages are and to set them forth in an orderly way. Just as the student of plant life may find certain likenesses and differences in the plants studied, which may be classified and stated in systematic form, so the student of language discovers certain facts about

sentences and about words composing sentences, which may be set down in systematized form. The study of these facts about the sentence and its parts constitutes the study of grammar.

Thus we see that grammar is not to be regarded as a body of rules or code of laws governing the use of language. *"Existing usage is the only standard of speech. Grammar finds its rules in the current practices of the community; its authority is merely that of a guide to what is customary."

†"The idea that the free use of speech is tied down by the rules of the grammarian must first be given up; all that the grammarian can do is to formulate the current uses of his time, which are determined by habit and custom and are, accordingly, in a perpetual state of flux."

THE SCOPE OF GRAMMAR

As the science of the sentence, grammar must confine itself to a study of such facts as enter into the problems of sentence structure. Hence, although sentences are composed of words, grammar should concern itself with the study of words only in reference to the relations they bear to one another as parts of a sentence. The study of words as objects in themselves does not fall within the science of grammar. Orthoepy, which treats of the pronunciation of words, orthography, which treats of the spelling of words, and lexicology, which treats of the derivation and significance of words, are now regarded as special aspects of grammar. Thus the facts of gram-

*(*Nelson's Encyclopædia*, Vol. V, p. 522)

†(*Encyclopædia Britannica*, Vol. XII, p. 330)

mar, so far as we need to consider them in an elementary course, will separate themselves into three main divisions:

1. SYNTAX: The study of the parts into which sentences may be divided and of the relations existing between these parts.

2. CLASSIFICATION: The study of the classes and sub-classes into which words may be divided according to their uses in expressing the ideas of which the thought of the sentence is composed.

3. INFLECTION: The study of the changes of form which words undergo when brought into relation with one another in sentences, and of any substitutes which the language has developed to take the place of these changes of form.

WHY GRAMMAR SHOULD BE TAUGHT

In recent years there has been considerable controversy regarding the wisdom of teaching grammar in the elementary schools. Various charges have been laid against the subject. In the first place, it is said, it has failed in the most important claim made for it; namely, that it would enable the pupil to speak and to write the English language with propriety. It has also been said that the subject is too difficult for the pupils of the elementary school, who have not developed the powers of reasoning and abstract thinking required to understand the facts and principles of grammar; that, consequently, the subject is almost meaningless to them, and they come to dislike it.

These arguments, of course, can be answered. In the first place, it is no longer claimed that a knowledge of

grammar leads to a correct use of the language. We know that children learn to speak through imitating their parents and others with whom they associate in childhood. Consequently, if they always *hear* correct language, they will *speak* correctly themselves; if they hear incorrect forms frequently, the tendency is to adopt these incorrect forms. Speech habits, correct or incorrect, are established in childhood; and so familiarity with the mother-tongue always precedes the study of grammar. Thus we see that correct speech depends largely upon social environment and upon practice, rather than upon a knowledge of grammar.

But while this is true, it must not be overlooked that a knowledge of grammar *may* have an indirect influence upon speech. The study of the facts of grammar enables the student to understand why certain forms of speech are considered correct and others incorrect; thus his knowledge of grammar enables him to use language in a rational way rather than in a purely imitative way. Because he understands the reasons for the use of the various forms, the student is enabled to detect incorrect forms in his own speech; indeed, if he is sufficiently watchful of his language, he may even succeed in giving up the use of the incorrect forms. But it is only after he has attained some degree of judgment that such results are to be looked for. For all practical purposes a knowledge of grammar has comparatively little to do with the speech habits of boys and girls of the elementary school.

In regard to the difficulty of the subject, it may be said that the study of grammar *does* call for the ability to compare, to generalize, to do abstract thinking; for this reason it is entirely unsuited to the mental capacity of *young children*. But it is because teachers, not under-

standing the real purpose of grammar, have introduced the study too early in the pupil's career that much of this difficulty has arisen. Furthermore, the subject has been too highly elaborated and pupils have been asked to make fine distinctions, many of which were based upon the structure of Latin rather than of English. As a result, grammar has meant no more to many pupils than the drudgery of memorizing and trying to apply rules and definitions which conveyed little or no meaning to them.

In recent years, however, the course has been very much simplified; we are breaking away from the tyranny of Latin models, and confining ourselves to the study of the facts of the sentence as we find them exemplified in our own language. Moreover, the formal teaching of grammar is being deferred to the later years of the elementary school course, when the pupil has developed the necessary mental powers.

On the other hand, certain benefits arise from the right treatment of the subject. It is now being recognized that a knowledge of grammar serves as a basis for the study of language, and that this is one of the main reasons for teaching it. Professor Wyld, one of the greatest living authorities on language, says: **"A Grammar book does not attempt to teach people how they ought to speak; but, on the contrary, unless it is a very bad or a very old work, it merely states how, as a matter of fact, certain people do speak at the time at which it is written. . . . Grammarians do not lead English speech, they follow it. . . . The study of English Grammar is really a preparation for the careful and intelligent study of language. We, as English people, can best approach the question of what is called the*

*Wyld, *Elementary Lessons in English Grammar*, p. 11, 12

structure of the language, through English. . . . There are certain facts which are true of all languages. We can readily observe them in our own language and understand the reason of them when it is explained to us. If we have a clear notion of these things in English, we shall not be puzzled when we come across similar occurrences in Latin, or Greek, or French, or German."

Furthermore, a considerable part of the study of grammar to-day involves the analysis of more or less complicated sentences into their parts. This involves the analysis of the *thought* of the sentence. It is only natural that practice in the analysis of thought should result in greater ability to analyse thought, that is, to understand and appreciate the thoughts expressed by the great writers of our literature.

Such analysis of the sentence also leads to a better understanding of the forms in which thought may be expressed. Just as an understanding of the construction of a tool enables the mechanic to use that tool more effectively, so a knowledge of the structure of the sentence—the tool for the expression of thought—enables the speaker or the writer to use language with greater effectiveness. Thus the analytic study of the sentence prepares the way for the synthetic process of composition; a knowledge of grammar paves the way for the study of rhetoric.

The claim may also be made for grammar that it is a means of training in clear thinking. It provides practice in analysis, in comparison, in classification, in generalization, such as few other subjects provide. Professor Laurie says: *"A boy who is intelligently analysing language is analysing the processes of thought, and is a

**Language and Linguistic Method*, Lecture I

logician without knowing it. And this is the reason why language in its formal aspects has always been regarded as the best preparation for the logician and philosopher, and, according to Quintilian, for the orator and publicist also. Hence, too, it is the best preparation for the study of all or any of the sciences."

WHEN TO BEGIN GRAMMAR

English is not a highly inflected language like Latin or German. In these languages the forms of words help to show their relation and use in the sentence. In English, however, the number of inflections is small, while the *order* of the words in the sentence and the use of connective words and auxiliary verbs are of comparatively greater importance. Consequently, the pupil must be led to discover the facts of grammar, not through the mere observation of the concrete forms of words, but rather through reflection upon the thought expressed. As Professor Chubb says regarding the English sentence: *"In other terms, the mind is freed from attention to the linguistic detail and machinery which is such a clog upon the student's progress: it is forced to grapple with the genuine logic of speech. Reason replaces memory; thought-evidence the sense-evidence of inflection. In fine, the construction and comprehension of the English sentence does not throw the mind back on concords and rules, on endless paradigms and exceptions, but on genuine thought-relations."

From this it is evident that the study of formal grammar should not be begun until the reasoning power of the pupil has developed. This usually happens about the time the pupil enters Form IV. Moreover, it has

**The Teaching of English, Chubb, p. 208*

been found from experience that it is easily possible to teach all the grammar of the elementary course in two years. As a separate scientific study of language, therefore, grammar should appear on the Courses of Study for the Elementary Schools only sufficiently early to admit of teaching the pupils the simple facts and principles which underlie the structure of the English sentence. The two years spent in Form IV will be found sufficient for this purpose.

But while this is true, many of the simpler facts about the sentence should be taught incidentally in connection with the pupil's study of language in the lower Forms. The ordinary class room work in spoken and in written composition and the pupil's own reading of literature will provide many opportunities of learning the simpler facts about the sentence, what it is, the kinds, the parts of the sentence, the functions of the parts of speech. Thus an interest in language-study will be developed gradually and naturally. The thoughtful pupil will begin to ask questions as to the reason for this form in the sentence, the correctness of that form; the habit of reflection on language forms will be developed; thus the pupil will be prepared to begin the more formal study of grammar as it is to be taught in Form IV.

CHAPTER II

THE METHOD OF GRAMMAR

IN the study of grammar we proceed to a discovery of the laws and principles of the language through a study of concrete examples of language, that is, sentences.

The following outline of a lesson on "The Participle" will illustrate the various steps in the procedure.

I. PREPARATION: Have the following sentences on the black-board:

1. The busy man eats his dinner quickly.
2. The man, busy with his work, forgot his dinner.

By means of questions review the function of the word *busy* in these sentences as an adjective modifying the noun *man*. Recall the facts that an adjective is used to modify a noun or a pronoun; that the word *eats* in sentence 1 is a verb and expresses action; that a verb may be completed by an object and may be modified by an adverb or an adverb phrase or clause.

II. PROBLEM: Now turn to these sentences on the black-board:

3. The man eating his dinner quickly wants a cup of hot tea.
4. I know the boy standing at the door.
5. Pencils left on the floor will be taken.

Have the pupils tell the part of speech of such words as *man*, *dinner*, *wants*, *hot*, etc., in sentence 3.

On being asked what the word *eating* is, pupils cannot tell. The teacher may then suggest the desirability of learning the function of such a word as *eating*.

PRESENTATION:

III. SELECTING AND RELATING: By asking the following questions, the teacher will lead the pupils to discover for themselves the facts indicated below:

1. In this sentence, what man is spoken of? (The man eating his dinner)

What then does the word *eating* modify? (The word *man*)

Since the word *eating* modifies the noun *man*, what part of speech is it like? (An adjective) This fact is written on the black-board.

2. From what word in sentence 1 is the word *eating* derived? (The verb *eats*)

What does this verb *eats* express? (It expresses action.)

How is the word *eating* completed? (By the object *dinner*)

How is the word *eating* modified? (By the adverb *now*)

Since the word *eating* is derived from a verb, completed like a verb, modified like a verb, what part of speech must it be like? (A verb)

The facts as developed above will appear on the black-board as follows: The word *eating*

- | | |
|---|--|
| (1) Modifies the noun <i>man</i> . Therefore it has the nature of an adjective. | |
| (2) Is derived from the verb <i>eats</i> . | } Therefore it has the nature of a verb. |
| (3) Expresses action. | |
| (4) Is completed like a verb. | |
| (5) Is modified like a verb. | |

Now the pupils are led to conclude that, because the word *eating* modifies a noun, it has the nature of an

adjective, and because of the other four facts it has the nature of a verb. These facts are now written on the black-board, as shown above.

The teacher now asks: What two parts of speech is the word *eating* like? (Adjective and verb)

What facts have you discovered about the word *eating*? (It shares the nature of both adjective and verb.)

A similar series of questions may now be asked regarding each of the words *standing*, in sentence 4, and *left*, in sentence 5. Then ask the pupils to tell in what respect these three words, *eating*, *standing*, and *left*, are alike.

IV. DEVELOPMENT: The teacher now turns to the following group of sentences on the black-board, and has the pupils read the sentences one by one, select the words that are similar in function to those already discussed, and give the reasons for their selection.

The words are underlined as selected.

1. You may have the books lying on the table.
2. Apples sold at this market are usually good.
3. Do you know the man selling apples at the market?
4. The ball thrown by the fielder was caught by me.
5. Shouting loudly, the hunters rode swiftly away.
6. The boy, thrown suddenly from his wheel, was almost killed.

The teacher now asks: How are all these words alike? (All share the nature of adjective and verb.)

V. NAME: The teacher now says: There are many words like these in our language. Such words are called participles.

The name *participle* is now written on the black-board.

VI. EXPLANATION: The pupils are now asked to tell in their own words the facts discovered in answer to such questions as these: What have you found out about a participle? How is a participle like an adjective? How like a verb? etc.

VII. APPLICATION: The pupils are next assigned a paragraph or an exercise and asked to select the participles and to explain the function of each.

From the first six steps of the above outline, it is seen that through the study of *particular* examples of words sharing the nature of both adjective and verb, the pupils are led to a *general* conclusion; namely, that any word in the sentence which shares the nature of both an adjective and a verb is known as a participle. Thus the method of *inductive* reasoning is used in discovering what a participle is.

But we do not stop here. The pupil must be led to a still clearer understanding of the participle, by applying the general knowledge gained in the solution of other particular problems. For example, in such a sentence as,

The apples thrown into the basket were bruised.

the problem is to determine how to classify the word *thrown*.

The course of reasoning will be as follows: Any word which shares the nature of both an adjective and a verb is a participle. The word *thrown* modifies the noun *apples*, and so has the nature of an adjective; it is derived from a verb and modified like a verb, and so it has the nature of a verb. Therefore the word *thrown* is a participle. Here, since the general principle is applied to the solution of the particular problem, the *deductive* method of reasoning is followed.

Thus the full method of grammar will be the *inductive-deductive* method; the general laws and principles being discovered inductively and then applied deductively.

But it must not be thought that these two principles work separately. They are ceaselessly interacting at each stage in every lesson to such an extent that no one lesson is wholly inductive or wholly deductive.

By further reference to the lesson on the participle, we notice that the only thing which the teacher tells the pupil is the new name—participle. Beginning with what the pupil already knows regarding the adjective and the verb, the teacher so guides the mental self-activity of the pupil by his questioning that the latter is led to discover all the facts for himself and to interpret these facts in the light of his own former knowledge. In other words, the pupil is led, under the guidance and inspiration of the teacher, to draw the necessary inferences for himself. Because of this way of proceeding in the lesson, the method of grammar is also a *developing* method.

STEPS IN THE DEVELOPING LESSON

The method of teaching any subject must accord with certain principles determined by the nature of the learning process. The adaptation of these principles to the developing lesson in grammar involves certain special features. The outline of the lesson on the participle, given above, may be taken as a typical developing lesson plan. The steps of such a lesson may be labelled as follows:

I. PREPARATION OF THE PUPILS

In this step the teacher recalls to the pupil's mind such old knowledge as is necessary to enable him to interpret the new facts to be developed later. Usually this may best be done by questions based on concrete examples written on the black-board. For example, in the lesson on the participle, sentences 1 and 2 are used to recall the known facts regarding the nature and function of the adjective and the verb that will afterwards help the pupil to an understanding of the unknown participle.

II. REALIZATION OF A PROBLEM BY THE PUPIL

A particular type example illustrating the new fact or facts to be taught, written on the black-board, is now read by the pupil; for example, sentence 3 above. He is led to realize that there is something here which he does not know; at the same time he feels a desire to learn the unknown. Thus he realizes a problem to be solved.

PRESENTATION

III. SELECTING AND RELATING STEP

Under the stimulus of the teacher's questioning, the pupil is now led to select certain facts that bear on the solution of the problem and to relate these to each other and to the former knowledge just recalled, with a view to solving the problem. In the lesson outlined above, the pupil is led to select from the many facts regarding the words *eating*, *standing*, and *left*, only those that help in the solution of this problem; from these he is led to draw certain inferences; namely, that each of these words is like an adjective and a verb. Thus he gets a more or

less vague conception of a new class of words possessing a double function. It will be seen at once that this step in the lesson is a very important one and calls for most careful questioning by the teacher.

IV. THE DEVELOPING EXERCISE

As only three or four examples illustrating the new fact or principle have been studied as yet, the pupil's idea of it is likely to be rather vague; it is necessary that this idea be made clear and definite. This can best be done in the above lesson by having the pupil select from a number of sentences other words similar in function to those already studied. Enough examples should be studied to enable the pupil to select *without difficulty* the words which have the nature of both the adjective and the verb. *With one pupil four or five examples may suffice; with another twelve or fifteen may be needed.* It is often well to tabulate the results on the black-board, in order that the eye may assist the pupil in grasping likenesses and differences in function. When enough examples have been examined, the pupil may be asked to tell the characteristics common to all the selected words or groups of words.

V. THE NAME

As the pupil has now shown that he understands clearly the new fact, or principle, he is ready for the name. In most lessons this will be given by the teacher, as the pupil could not be expected to know it. In some cases, however, as in that of the conjunctive adjective, the function of the word will suggest the name.

VI. THE EXPLANATION

The pupil is next asked to tell what he has discovered in the lesson. The facts may be stated concisely, and need not be expressed in exactly the same words by the different members of the class. The main thing is that the pupil explain clearly in his own words the fact, or principle discovered, or the significance of the new term used.

VII. THE APPLICATION

A practical application of the new knowledge, now organized and controlled, is next to be made, by the working of suitable exercises as problems involving the new principle, by the parsing and analysis of literary selections into which it especially enters, and by its introduction into appropriate composition exercises. While this constitutes the final step in the developing lesson, other suitable exercises for applying the new knowledge should be introduced at frequent intervals after this, until the new fact, or principle has become thoroughly established in the pupil's mind.

THE PLACE OF THE DEFINITION IN GRAMMAR

Many teachers in the past have placed a great deal of emphasis upon the definition. Their great aim in the grammar lesson seemed to be to lead up to a formal statement which the pupil must memorize word for word. The pupil, too, who often failed to understand the principles being taken up, nevertheless seized upon the definition as the one tangible thing that he could carry away from the lesson. Thus the definition assumed a place of altogether undue importance in the teaching of grammar.

The purpose of the definition is to serve as a concise statement of the facts, or principles involved. If the lesson is conducted according to the outline given above, the teacher may make sure at each step that the pupil understands the points involved. The informal statement of the facts learned, as given by the pupil in his own words in Step VI, is better than a formal definition.

After a reasonable amount of application, however, the pupil may, if it is desired, state in a fairly exact form the fundamental characteristics of the newly taught fact, or principle, as they appear to him in the light of the various concrete exercises studied by him. If an exact definition is desired, therefore, it should be the last step in the teaching process, when the pupil will be familiar with numerous concrete examples.

Monroe says: "The scientific grammarian regards his definition as merely a convenient summary statement of the facts he has observed."

OTHER KINDS OF LESSON

While the method of the grammar lesson has been described as a developing method, it must not be inferred that every lesson in this subject is to be conducted as a formal developing lesson. Only those lessons in which the rules and principles of the science are being discovered by the class are so conducted. In addition to these lessons, the teacher will find it necessary at regular intervals to conduct such other lessons as the following:

**Cyclopædia of Education, Vol. III, p. 134*

I. THE REVIEW LESSON

Many of the facts, or principles of grammar, understood fairly well by the pupils when first developed by the teacher, are yet so new and so abstract in character that the teacher should develop them a second time by reference to other concrete examples. For example, after developing the facts regarding the participle, the teacher may ask the pupils to select the participles from a given exercise and to tell why they are participles. At the next lesson the teacher may first of all test the pupils' knowledge regarding the participle by reference to one or two new examples, before taking up the assigned seat-work exercise. The facts thus recalled may be noted concisely on the black-board and left before the pupils during the remainder of the lesson.

Opportunities for review will also occur in almost every lesson. The preparation step of the developing lesson involves the review of old knowledge bearing on the new to be taught. Exercises in analysis and parsing involve the review of facts and principles gained in previous lessons.

Scarcely any more serious mistake could be made by the teacher than to suppose that when a topic has once been taught, it needs no further attention. *Frequent review and very much practice in applying the principles are essential.*

In addition to various forms of incidental review, topical reviews should find a frequent place in the year's work, in order that the facts learned in a series of lessons may be organized into a unified whole. For example, after a series of lessons on the classes of verb-phrases, a review lesson may be taken in which a bird's-eye

view of all the various classes is obtained. For further suggestions on reviews of this kind see Chapter VI.

II. THE APPLICATION LESSON

Many lessons must be conducted, also, the aim of which is to give the pupils facility in the use of their grammatical knowledge. Lessons in parsing and analysis, for example, do not aim primarily to develop new knowledge in the pupils, but rather to give them abundant opportunity to apply grammatical principles which have been previously learned. Material in the form of exercises suitable for application lessons is found in the text-book and in Chapter XI of this Manual, but many additional exercises may be drawn by the alert teacher from other sources. The more numerous and varied these application exercises are, the more thoroughly will the principles involved be mastered.

THE USE OF THE TEXT-BOOK

The *Ontario Public School Composition and Grammar* is intended primarily for the use of the teacher. It gives in outline in Parts I-IV the course to be covered in the elementary schools, and in Part V the course for more advanced pupils; it also gives material that the teacher may use, if he wishes, in teaching the various topics. Although the different topics are treated in expository form in the text-book, they are outlined in such a way as to suggest the various steps of the developing lesson as given above, with the exception of the preparatory step, for material for which the teacher is left to his own resources.

At the beginning of each Chapter is a preliminary suggestion in italics of the nature of the observations

and comparisons to be made by the pupils under the teacher's guidance, in connection with the type examples given immediately below. In most lessons the first of these examples may be used to lead the pupils to realize a problem. After the type examples comes a statement of the facts, or ideas to be developed from the study of these examples. Although these results are given in expository form, it is taken for granted *that the teacher will have the pupils discover them through their own observations and comparisons made during the lesson*, thus fulfilling the requirement of the third step of the developing lesson.

A number of sentences are then given, to be used for the developing exercise. In connection with some topics and with some classes the teacher will find it advisable to use additional examples in this step.

Following this list of sentences come the name and a statement of its significance as developed in the earlier steps of the lesson. Here, too, although this statement is given in expository form, it is assumed that the teacher will obtain the facts from the pupils, not by the use of the text-book, but through suitable questions. Moreover, it is not intended that the pupil should use in the sixth step the exact wording of the book; his own explanations are much to be preferred so long as they are correct.

The text-book is also for the use of the pupil, but only in a limited way. In connection with each Chapter there are exercises which the pupil should work out as an application of the various facts, or principles which he has been taught. But the pupil should be asked to work these exercises only after the facts, or principles have been developed in the way outlined above. It is not

intended that he should be required to read the expository parts of the text-book as a substitute for being taught by the teacher, although in some cases advanced pupils may be asked to read certain parts simply for purposes of review.

SUGGESTIONS FOR THE TEACHER OF GRAMMAR

The study of grammar may be made one of the most interesting parts of the pupil's work, or one of the most disagreeable. A similar statement may be made regarding the teacher's work in the subject. The following suggestions are offered to help bring about desirable experiences for both teacher and pupil.

1. *Prepare carefully for the lesson.* The development of the facts in the grammar lesson follows a logical procedure. If the questions are well worded and well arranged, the facts are developed one after the other with the least expenditure of time and effort. But if the teacher is uncertain of the order in which the points should be developed or unskilful in asking the necessary questions, time will be lost, and the pupil will be confused. The most careful preparation of a logical series of properly worded questions by the teacher is essential to success in the grammar lesson.

2. *Have the material for the lesson ready on the black-board.* Time may be saved and the interest of the class maintained if the teacher has the sentences to be used in the various steps of the lesson on the black-board before the lesson is begun. In some schools the teacher may enlist the services of some of the more capable pupils in writing this material on the black-board.

3. *Make the work concrete.* At its best, much of the work in grammar is abstract in character. The teacher

should use every means of preventing it from being unnecessarily abstract. He should base the questions and discussions on suitable sentences written on the black-board. The part or parts of sentences being studied may be underlined with coloured chalk, bracketed, or otherwise marked, while the facts discovered by the pupil, the selections made, the inferences drawn, etc., may be tabulated on the black-board. Whenever possible, visual aids should be made use of.

4. *Review constantly.* Frequent review of the grammatical knowledge is the price of successful work. So much of to-day's lesson depends upon a ready knowledge of yesterday's, that unless yesterday's is clearly comprehended and easily recalled, to-day's lesson will not be a success. The facts, or principles developed from week to week should be kept fresh in the pupil's mind through frequent repetition and application.

5. *Emphasize function rather than form.* Such highly inflected languages as Latin and modern German depend largely upon changes in the forms of words to show differences in meaning and relation in the sentence. But in modern English there are few inflections left. We must for the most part determine grammatical value by meaning and use rather than by form.

From the beginning of the course, the pupil should be trained to consider the function of the parts of the sentence, and to be guided by this in making his classifications. Because certain forms are used in most cases with the same function, errors arise sometimes from the tendency to determine grammatical values in all such cases on the basis of form rather than of meaning or function. For example, the subordinate clause introduced by the adverbial conjunction (or conjunctive

adverb) *when* is commonly an adverbial clause of time; the tendency is for the pupil to classify all subordinate clauses beginning with *when* in this way, without considering the meaning.

But this classification seems unsatisfactory in such an example as:

I could not play correctly *when they were talking*,

(*When* means *because*.)

and would be quite incorrect in such sentences as:

1. The day *when that will happen* is far distant.

(Adjective modifying noun *day*)

2. The best time to do this will be *when they are leaving*.

(Noun, subjective completion)

3. The boy told us *when the concert would begin*.

(Noun object of verb *told*)

Similarly, the subordinate clause beginning with *where* is not always adverbial, as shown by the following sentences:

1. The place *where we stopped* is quite romantic.

(Adjective modifying *place*)

2. I know *where you live*.

(Noun object of *know*)

3. Tell me *where you put the pail*.

(Noun object of *tell*)

Occasionally, too, there seems to be a lack of agreement between form and meaning, especially in the case of some inflected forms. For example, in the sentences:

1. My brother arrives to-morrow.

2. I am going to the concert next week.

the verbs *arrives* and *am going* are present tense forms, while the speaker is evidently referring to an event which is to happen in the future. Although the meaning

is future, it would not be correct, of course, to classify them as future verb forms.

The pupil who has been trained to consider the function of the word before classifying it will have no difficulty in understanding that a word may be used with different values in different sentences, as illustrated in the following:

1. Iron is heavy.
2. The iron wedge is broken.
3. They iron the clothes on Tuesday.

6. *Select examples for the developing lesson with great care.* In the earlier part of this Chapter it was pointed out that the facts, or principles of grammar are to be developed through questioning based on suitable examples illustrating these facts, or principles. Great care should be taken by the teacher in the selection of the examples to see that they manifest the distinctive characteristics of the class of facts being illustrated; that is, that they are really typical examples.

In the sentences:

The boy broke the fence.

The boy climbed over the fence.

we have type examples of the transitive and the intransitive verb.

But in the sentence:

The boy climbed the fence.

the verb *climbed* might be viewed either as transitive, followed by its object *fence*, or as intransitive, with the preposition *over* omitted. It does not show the clearly marked characteristics of either class of verb, but seems to shade from one class into the other. It is not a type example.

So also in the sentences:

I took the wrong hat.

They endured much wrong at the hand of the enemy.

the word *wrong* is used as an adjective and as a noun respectively.

But in the sentence:

Avoid the wrong; choose the right.

it may not be easy for the pupil to decide whether the word *wrong* is a noun or an adjective; it shades off from one part of speech to the other.

A similar difficulty is shown in the third sentence of the following group:

The boy is fond of *writing* letters to his brother.

Writing is an important subject of the course.

The boy is fond of *writing*.

While it is easy to see that the word *writing* in the first sentence is an infinitive, and in the second a noun, it is not so easy to decide what it is in the third sentence. It is best, of course, to regard it as a noun.

Such examples as exhibit this peculiarity of shading between two classes of words are altogether unsuitable to use in developing the facts, or principles of grammar. *When such facts, or principles are being developed, only strongly-marked type examples should be placed before the class.* If examples which manifest in any way the phenomenon of shading or which exhibit any other peculiar difficulties are to be introduced at all in elementary classes, it should not be done until the pupils are thoroughly familiar with the normal types of the classes of words.

CHAPTER III

COURSE FOR FORM III

LESSON OUTLINES

IN this part of the Manual is found an outline of the introductory work in grammar that may be taken with the two grades of Form III. Lesson plans are given for a number of the topics, while suggestions are also given regarding the character of the work to be taken between these lessons.

In teaching grammar it is important to bear in mind the principle that learning is a process of discrimination; in other words, that any fact presented to the pupil is best understood, not merely through an examination of its characteristics, but also by comparison with that which it is not.

It is equally important to remember that the mental grasp of young children is limited, especially when they are dealing with abstract materials. No lesson should be overloaded with detail simply for the sake of comparison. For example, although it might seem an advantage for the purposes of comparison to teach declarative, interrogative, and imperative sentences in a single lesson, it will be found better with young pupils to confine the comparison first to declarative and interrogative sentences, and later to teach the imperative through comparison with the two then known types. The exclamatory sentence should be left until later, as it sometimes is equivalent to a declarative sentence.

Moreover, in the selection of examples to be used in developing the facts of the lesson, it is best to use simple

examples, so that the pupil may not be confused by the number of details. For instance, in a lesson on modifiers, a simple sentence like *Busy men hurry*, is more suitable for the first three steps of the lesson than such a sentence as, *Some little red apples lay on the ground under the tree*. Then, in the developing exercise, other examples that are properly graded in difficulty may be introduced.

THE SENTENCE

The pupils have been using sentences for years in their everyday speech, and have learned to write sentences. But they may not yet have learned to distinguish between groups of words that are sentences and groups of words that are not sentences. The aim of this lesson is to enable them to make this distinction.

STEP I. The following groups of words appear on the black-board:

1. The boy throws the ball.
2. Those pretty flowers.
3. Jack lost his knife.
4. The dog in the yard.

I have some groups of words on the black-board that I want you to look at. (After saying this the teacher writes the expression *group of words* on the black-board).

Read the first group. Now, read the second. What are both of these? (Groups of words)

STEP II. Now these groups of words differ from each other in a very important way. Let us see who can find out how they differ.

STEP III. Look at the first two groups again. Which one of them expresses a complete thought? (The first)

Which one does not express a complete thought?
(The second)

What does the first group of words do? (It expresses a complete thought.)

When this answer is given the teacher writes on the black-board opposite sentence 1 the statement—This group of words expresses a complete thought.

How does the second group of words differ from the first? (It does not express a complete thought.) Write this answer after sentence 2.

What have you found out about the first group of words?

What have you found out about the second group?
(Answer as above.)

A similar series of questions may now be asked to develop the corresponding facts regarding groups 3 and 4. Now have the pupils tell how groups 1 and 3 are alike, how groups 2 and 4 are alike, and how groups 1 and 3 differ from groups 2 and 4.

STEP IV. The teacher now turns to the following groups of words on the black-board, at the same time saying: Here are a number of other groups of words. Read these one by one and tell which ones express a complete thought and which do not.

1. The pony ran into the field.
2. The lion saw a mouse.
3. Under an apple tree.
4. Some ripe cherries in a basket.
5. Cinderella lost her slipper.
6. Mother brought us a lunch.
7. Only a glass slipper.
8. At ten o'clock on Tuesday.

The teacher may arrange the results of the pupils' selections on the black-board as follows:

*Groups of words which express
a complete thought:*

1. The pony ran into the field.
2. The lion saw a mouse.
5. Cinderella lost her slipper.
6. Mother brought us a lunch.

*Groups of words which do not
express a complete thought:*

3. Under an apple tree.
4. Some ripe cherries in a basket.
7. Only a glass slipper.
8. At ten o'clock on Tuesday.

The teacher now asks: How are all the groups in the first column alike? (Each of them expresses a complete thought.)

STEP V. We use many such groups of words in our everyday language. Each one is known by this name. The teacher now writes the name, *sentence*, on the black-board.

STEP VI. Why is this group of words (No. 1) called a sentence?

Why is this group of words (No. 2, then Nos. 5, 6) called a sentence?

Why is this other group (Nos. 3, then 4, 7, 8 in turn) not a sentence?

What have you found out about a sentence?

STEP VII. 1. Have the pupils select the sentences from the exercise in the text-book. Further practice may be had if the teacher writes several similar exercises on the black-board.

2. Write a simple paragraph on the black-board. Have the pupils select sentences.

3. Have the pupils write a sentence about each of the following: A horse, your father, Jack, the cow in the yard, my dog, etc.

In a later lesson the teacher should review *by means of a sentence on the black-board*, the facts taught in the first lesson, and also teach the fact that *a group of words used in asking a question is a sentence*.

After there has been abundant practice in applying the knowledge gained regarding the sentence (including the question), the teacher may teach the two most common classes of sentence—the declarative (or assertive) and the interrogative sentences.

THE CLASSES OF SENTENCES

I. Have the following on the black-board:

1. Jack lost his pencil.
2. Who broke the window?
3. Your brother bought a new house.
4. Will you help us to-morrow?

The pupils read the first two groups of words and tell how they are alike. (Both are sentences.)

II. Lead the pupils to realize a problem by asking them to find out the difference between the groups of words.

III. By questioning develop the facts that sentence 1 makes a statement, while sentence 2 asks a question. Deal similarly with sentences 3 and 4.

What does the speaker know according to sentence 1?

Why do you say he knows about the loss of the knife?

What is his statement?

What does this sentence express or do?

In sentence 2 what does the speaker wish to know?

How does he let you know his desire to know?

What does this sentence do?

IV. Turn to a list of 5 or 6 sentences ready on the black-board, including several of each kind. The pupils classify them as above. Have them tell how all those of the first list are alike; then how those of the second list are alike, and how they differ from those of the first list.

V. Give the names—declarative sentence, interrogative sentence.

VI. Ask the pupils to tell in their own words what they have learned about each kind of sentence.

VII. The following forms of application may be given in turn as the pupils are ready for them:

1. Classify the sentences in an exercise of 12 or 14 sentences written on the black-board.

2. Find 5 sentences of each kind from a certain page of the Reader.

3. Write a declarative sentence about *my cap, the big dog, your pencil, some apples, the pony*; then write an interrogative sentence about each.

4. Change the declarative sentences in a list on the black-board to interrogative sentences and vice versa.

When the pupils are thoroughly familiar with these two classes of sentence, teach the imperative.

1. Then have the pupils classify the sentences in an exercise containing all three classes.

2. Have them write commands, questions, statements. The exclamatory sentence may be taught after the pupils are familiar with these three classes.

3. Ask the pupils to classify the sentences in an easy selection in the Reader.

The pupils should now be ready to learn the parts of the sentence.

THE PARTS OF THE SENTENCE

I. Use such sentences as the following:

1. My dog eats bones.
2. Jack threw his ball.
3. The bear growled fiercely.
4. My little sister made some candy.

Have the pupils read sentence 1, tell what they call it (a sentence), and why.

II. How many parts are there in such a sentence as this? (No one knows.) Let us find out, then, what parts there are in sentences.

III. What is spoken about in this sentence? (My dog)

What words stand for (or denote, or represent) the thing spoken about? *or*, What words tell what is spoken about? (The words *my dog*) Draw a vertical line after these words.

What do these words stand for? (They stand for the thing spoken about.)

What do these words do? (These words stand for the thing spoken about, *or*, These words tell what is spoken about.) Write this answer on the black-board above the subject.

What words tell what my dog does? (The words *eats bones*)

What words make a statement about my dog? (The words *eats bones*)

What do the words *eats bones* do? (They tell what my dog does, *or*, They make a statement about my dog.)

Write this answer on the black-board above the words *eats bones*.

How many parts are there in this sentence?

What does the first part do?

What does the second part do?

Now deal similarly with sentences 2, 3, and 4 above.

IV. Turn to a list of 8 or 9 graded sentences ready on the black-board. Have each pupil read a sentence in turn and tell:

1. The part which stands for the thing spoken about (or the part which tells what is spoken about).

2. The part which helps to make a statement about something. The parts are separated by a vertical line.

V. Give the pupils the names—subject, predicate of the sentence.

VI. Have the pupils state the facts discovered about the subject, the predicate.

VII. For application:

1. Ask the pupils to divide each of a number of sentences into subject and predicate.

2. Have the pupils supply predicates for given subjects, and vice versa.

When the pupils are quite familiar with subject and predicate, the teacher will use as many examples as are needed in each case to have the pupils discover the following facts:

1. The subject of the declarative sentence usually comes first.

2. It may come in other places.

3. In the interrogative sentence the subject often comes between parts of the predicate.

4. In the imperative sentence the subject is not usually expressed.

The pupils will now be ready for a lesson on the bare subject and bare predicate. Follow the usual procedure in a developing lesson, to lead the class to an understanding of the bare subject as the most important word in the subject, and the bare predicate as the most important part of the predicate. Particular care should be taken in this lesson to see that the pupils understand clearly that the bare subject is *a word in the sentence*, not a person or thing spoken about.

ANALYSIS

It is evident that when the pupils divide the sentence into subject and predicate, they are doing *analysis* of the simplest kind. The term *analysis* need not be introduced until much later; but the pupils should be given considerable practice in analysis of this type as soon as they have been taught the subject and the predicate of the sentence. More detailed analysis will be possible as the other parts of the sentence are understood by the pupil.

It is also evident that before the pupils can divide the sentence into its parts, they must be able to *analyse the thought of the sentence*; when the parts of the thought are introduced in their proper relation, the analysis of the sentence is easy. Consequently, the teacher should give his pupils considerable practice in analysing thought by asking the necessary questions. Moreover, *pupils*

should be trained to ask themselves the questions necessary to enable them to analyse thought without the teacher's help.

The following outline of questioning is suggested as suitable for the present stage of the pupils' knowledge:

Three big bears walked into the yard.

Read the sentence. What is spoken about? (Three big bears)

What words tell what is spoken about? The words *Three big bears*)

The teacher will now draw a vertical line after the word *bears*.

What part of the sentence is this? (The subject)

What is the bare subject? (The word *bears*) The teacher underlines this word.

What words tell what the bear did? (The words *walked into the yard*)

What part of the sentence is this? (The predicate)

What is the most important word in this predicate? (The word *walked*)

What do you call this word? (The bare predicate)

The teacher will underline this word with two lines. The pupils are now asked to give the various parts of the sentence in orderly form. At the close of the lesson the sentence will appear on the black-board as follows:

Three big bears | walked into the yard.

This might be carried a step farther at this point, to show the relation between *three* and *bears*, *into the*

yard and *walked*, as well as the relation between *bears* and *walked*. This would emphasize the grouping. For example:

What word tells how many bears?

What kind of bears were they?

Where did they walk?

What did the bears do?

CHAPTER IV

COURSE FOR FORM III—CONTINUED

THE PARTS OF SPEECH

THE NOUN

I. To prepare the pupils for this lesson the teacher may remind them that they have been studying sentences recently, and then ask each of two or three pupils to give a sentence orally. He may then ask what each of these sentences is made up of, expecting the answer—*words*.

II. Now tell the pupils that these words are not all used in the same way and suggest that they will naturally wish to learn the differences between the various words used in the sentence.

III. Ask several pupils in turn to give the name of something in the room. Write the words *name of something* on the black-board.

Some such list as the following would be given orally: Table, pen, book, pencil, boy, chair, Tom, etc. Now write on the black-board the sentence:

Tom threw the ball to his brother.

Ask the pupils to point out the name of something in this sentence. (The word *ball* is underlined.)

Now what kind of word is the word ball? (It is the name of something.)

Write on the black-board the statement *The word ball is the name of something.*

What other name-words do you see in this sentence? (The words *Tom* and *brother*) How are these words, *Tom*, *ball*, *brother*, alike? (All are name-words.)

IV. In this list of sentences select the words that are names of persons or things.

1. The apples and the oranges were put into a basket.
2. Mary and her sister have new pens and books.
3. A man was driving a heavy load along a muddy road; his horses were tired.
4. My brother knew that his dog had caught a squirrel.

Each word is underlined as it is selected. Now ask, How are all these words alike? (Each of them is the name of some person or thing.)

V. There are very many such words in the sentences that we speak or write. Each one of them is called by this name. Now the teacher writes the word *noun* on the black-board.

VI. What have you found out about a noun? Why is the word *apples* in sentence 1 a noun?

VII. The pupils are now asked to select the nouns in a list of sentences written on the black-board. Later they will select the nouns in a paragraph on the black-board or in a story which they have written. At frequent intervals after this they will be asked to identify nouns.

To avoid confusion later, the teacher should be careful to see at this early stage that the pupils realize that the term *noun* is applied, not to a person or a thing, but to a **word** in the sentence that is the **name** of a person or of a thing.

THE VERB

I. Have the following sentence analysed, and mark it as indicated:

Jack | broke his pencil.

II. Remind the class that they have learned that the bare subject *Jack* is also a noun; suggest to them the need of learning more about the bare predicate.

III. What part of this sentence tells us what Jack did? (The bare predicate *broke*)

Then what word helps to make a statement about Jack? (The word *broke*)

What does the bare predicate *broke* do? (It helps to make a statement about some person.)

Write this answer on the black-board.

IV. From a list of 12 to 15 sentences ready on the black-board for this step in the lesson, have the pupils select all the words that make statements about some person or thing.

V. - VIII. The other steps of the lesson now follow in natural order, and should not give any difficulty.

In giving the name the teacher might draw attention to the importance of the verb in the sentence, and so suggest the appropriateness of the name *verb*, which meant in former days—the word.

In the next lesson, review the fact taught in this, using a sentence on the black-board for this purpose. Then teach the fact that the word used in asking a question about some person or thing is also a verb.

These lessons should be followed by a *great deal of practice* in the analysis of easy sentences and in identifying nouns and verbs.

In due time the pronoun may be taught as a word used, in place of a noun, to represent a thing without naming it. After sufficient application of this new knowledge, the pupils will be ready for a series of lessons on modifiers.

MODIFIERS

LESSON PLAN

I. Use the sentence:

Cold rain fell steadily.

By analysis of this sentence, have the pupils recall the parts of the sentence—subject, predicate, bare subject, bare predicate.

II. Ask the pupils what part of this sentence is new to them. (The word *cold*)

Let us find out what this word does in the sentence.

III. To develop the desired facts in this step use concrete material. Ask four or five pupils *in turn* to bring you a pencil and place it on the table. Then say to the pupils: You have brought me different kinds of pencils. If I were to say, "Take a pencil," show me which one of these you might take. Show me another one. You see that you might take any one of these five pencils. But I am going to say to you, "Take a *short* pencil." Show me now which one you will take.

A pupil selects the right one. Why did you take that pencil? (It is short, you asked me to take a short one.)

You see then that the words *a short pencil* do not mean just the same as the words *a pencil*. The meaning of the word *pencil* has been slightly changed.

What word is used to change the meaning of the word *pencil*? (The word *short*)

What does the word *short* do? (It changes the meaning of the word *pencil*.)

What does it tell about the pencil? (It tells what kind of pencil it is.)

The teacher now writes on the black-board the statement: *The word short changes the meaning of the word pencil* by telling what kind of pencil it is.

The teacher then proceeds as before to have the pupils select a *sharp* pencil, a *blue* pencil, a *new* pencil, etc., and in each case develops the function of the word *sharp*, *blue*, *new*.

Pupils are now asked to tell what the word *cold* does in sentence 1 above. When developed, the statement of its function is written on the black-board after the sentence, as follows:

The word cold changes the meaning of the subject rain by telling what kind of rain it was.

Now have the pupils compare the statements:

1. The boy walks.
3. The boy walks slowly.
4. The tall boy walks fast.

By questioning lead the pupils to discover that the words *slowly* and *fast* change the meaning of the word *walks* by telling how the boy walks. Write the statement on the black-board. Develop also the fact that the word *tall* in sentence 3 changes the meaning of the word *boy*.

Now tell the class that instead of saying that *the word cold changes the meaning of the word rain*, we usually say that *the word cold modifies the word rain*. The term *modifies* is written on the black-board, and the pupils are asked to revise each of the statements on the black-board. Then ask how the words *cold*, *slowly*, *fast*, and *tall*, are alike. (Each modifies the meaning of another word.)

IV. From the following sentences have the pupils select the words that modify the meaning of other words, and tell how they modify those words.

1. Fluffy snow is falling slowly.
2. The tall man has a long, heavy, cane.
3. The little dog barks savagely behind the gate.
4. The thin ice broke suddenly.
5. A pretty little bird was singing sweetly and continuously before our window.

Ask the pupils to tell in what respect all the selected words are alike.

If the phrases in 3 and 5 are selected by the pupils, accept them. If they are not given, pass over them.

V. Since these words modify the meaning of other words with which they are used in the sentence, what would be a good name for them? If the pupils do not suggest the name *modifiers*, the teacher will write it on the black-board.

VI. Now ask different members of the class:

What does a modifier do?

Why are these words called modifiers?

What is the work of a modifier in the sentence?

VII. 1. The pupils are now asked to select the modifiers in a given set of sentences and to tell *how* each word modifies the meaning of another.

2. The pupils will select ten modifiers of nouns and ten modifiers of verbs in a certain prose selection in the Reader.

3. Pupils will fill in with suitable modifiers of nouns and verbs the blanks in a list of sentences written on the black-board.

The above lessons may be followed by one on modifiers of the bare subject and another on modifiers of the bare predicate.

A further step in analysis may next be taken, by having the pupils analyse suitable sentences into the four parts now known; namely, bare subject, modifiers of the bare subject, bare predicate, modifiers of the bare predicate.

THE ADJECTIVE

When the pupils have had *a great deal of practice* in selecting modifiers and in stating their function, the teacher will follow the usual steps of a developing lesson, in teaching the adjective as a word which modifies a noun or a pronoun. In connection with each example studied throughout the lesson, have the pupils tell *how* the word modifies the meaning of another word—that is, by telling what kind, whose, which, how many, etc.

The pupils should then have much practice extending over several lessons, in identifying adjectives and explaining their function, and in filling in the blanks in sentences with suitable adjectives.

THE ADVERB

When they are ready for the next topic, the teacher will take up at suitable intervals a series of three developing lessons on the adverb, developing the following facts:

1. Words which modify verbs are called adverbs.
2. Words which modify adjectives are called adverbs.
3. Words which modify other adverbs are called adverbs.

After the first of these lessons, and before the second, the pupils should have plenty of practice in selecting adverbs and telling their function.

The following outline for teaching the second lesson will suggest a suitable procedure for the others also.

LESSON: THE ADVERB

I. Use the following sentences:

1. A very lame dog limped slowly up the road.
2. Quite busy people came to see my brother.

We have been studying modifiers. Read sentence 1 and select a modifier. Tell what it modifies and how. Give its name. Select another modifier.

The words *lame* (adjective), *slowly* (adverb), *up the road* (adverb), are taken in turn.

II. Let us learn to distinguish these modifiers.

III. What word tells *how* lame the dog was? (The word *very*)

What does the word *very* do in this sentence, then? (It modifies the meaning of the adjective *lame*.)

How does it do this? (By telling how lame the dog was.)

The teacher now writes on the black-board the statement: The word *very* modifies the adjective *lame* by telling *how* lame the dog was.

Develop the corresponding fact regarding the word *quite* in sentence 2.

Let the pupils tell how the words *very* and *quite* are alike.

IV. The pupils select from the following sentences the adjectives and the modifiers of adjectives, and tell in each instance how the modifier alters the meaning of the adjective.

1. Too long holidays are tiresome.
2. This lad has an exceedingly attractive manner.
3. An extremely bright light appeared suddenly.
4. I had a rather sore arm after the accident.
5. A perfectly smooth board was placed over the top of the box.

The results of the pupils' work may be tabulated on the black-board as follows, or adjective and modifier may be underlined with chalk of different colours.

<i>Modifiers of adjectives</i>	<i>Adjectives</i>
1. Too	long
2. exceedingly	attractive
3. extremely	bright
4. rather	sore
5. perfectly	smooth

Now ask, How are all the words in the first list alike? (All modify adjectives.)

V. Such words as these are also called adverbs. Now write the name *adverb* on the black-board.

VI. Ask the pupils to tell what new fact they have discovered, what two things an adverb may do, why the word *very* in sentence 1 is called an adverb, etc.

VII. 1. The pupils should now select the adverbs from a prepared list of sentences on the black-board and explain fully the function of each.

2. In other sentences, pupils may fill the blanks with suitable adverbs.

After this series of lessons on the adverb and a great deal of practice in selecting adverbs and explaining their function, the teacher may, if he desires, lead the pupils to state the facts discovered in the form of a definition: *An adverb is a word which modifies the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or an adverb.*

The following topics may be taught as opportunities arise:

Singular and plural forms of nouns and pronouns, pronouns of the first, second, and third persons, the present and past tense forms of the verb, and the changes in the forms of verbs in the present tense because of changes in the person and number of the subject.

CONNECTIVES

The preposition and the conjunction are the most difficult parts of speech to teach, the former because of its relating function, the latter because of its having four or five different functions. Some help will be found in a later Chapter for teaching these parts of speech. It is suggested that the teacher of Form III lead the class to see that such words join or connect parts of the sentence and are, therefore, called *connectives*. The pupils may be allowed to use this term until the distinction between the preposition and the conjunction is taught in Form IV.

CHAPTER V

THE COURSE IN FORM IV

IN this and the following Chapters will be found suggestions for the course in Form IV. As it is neither possible nor necessary to go fully into all the topics of this course, only some of the more representative and some of the more difficult topics are dealt with in detail.

In some cases a mere outline of the lesson procedure is given; but it is assumed that the various points of the lesson will be developed in accordance with the principles already illustrated. Moreover, the teacher is reminded that the outlines given in these Chapters are intended merely to be suggestive; *it is not expected that they will be slavishly followed.*

As the course with the Form IV Junior class will probably be begun after the summer vacation, the first lesson or two should provide for a review of most of the facts taken up with Form III, together with further practice in the analysis of suitable sentences, especially sentences containing modifiers of the bare predicate. Pupils should be thoroughly familiar with such modifiers, and be able to explain their function quite readily, before the following topics are taught.

COMPLETE AND INCOMPLETE VERBS

I. The following sentences are on the black-board:

- | | |
|---------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. The rain falls. | 4. Mary made a cake. |
| 2. The boy broke his arm. | 5. This water is fresh. |
| 3. The water runs. | 6. The girls smiled. |

By analysis of the sentences the pupils find the bare predicates, which the teacher underlines. Ask how these two words are alike. (Both are verbs.)

II. Now suggest the desirability of finding out how they are different.

III. 1. By questioning, lead the pupils to see that the verb *broke* does not make a complete assertion by itself, while the verb *falls* does.

In sentence 2, what words are used with the verb *broke* in making the assertion? (The words *his arm*) If these words were omitted, what kind of statement would there be? (Incomplete)

What kind of statement does the verb *falls* make when used with the subject *rain*? (The verb *falls* makes a complete statement.) This answer is written on the black-board.

How does the verb *broke* differ from the verb *falls*? (The verb *broke* does not make a complete statement.) Put this answer on the black-board.

What difference have we found between the verb *falls* and the verb *broke*? (Answer as above.)

2. Now develop the corresponding facts regarding the verbs *runs*, *made*, *is*, and *smiled* in sentences 3, 4, 5, 6. Have the pupils tell what is true of the verbs *falls*, *runs*, *smiled*, and of *broke*, *made*, and *is*.

IV. Use some such list of sentences as the following, from which the pupils will select and classify the verbs. Tabulate the answers on the black-board, or underline with chalk of different colours:

1. These birds sing.
2. Jack lost his penknife.
3. The dog ate the meat yesterday.

4. Snow fell slowly.
5. My brother became tired.
6. The cat caught a mouse in the cellar.
7. The dog barks fiercely.
8. The children were sleeping.
9. The pitcher lost the ball.
10. We ploughed the garden.
11. The boys laughed loudly.

Verbs which make a complete assertion by themselves

1. sing
4. fell
7. barks
8. were sleeping
11. laughed

Verbs which do not make a complete assertion by themselves

2. lost
3. ate
5. became
6. caught
9. lost
10. ploughed

Ask the pupils to tell how all the verbs in the first column are alike, then all in the second column.

V. Lead them to suggest a suitable name for the first class, then for the second. Write the names on the black-board.

VI. Let the pupils tell the facts discovered.

VII. 1. The pupils will classify the verbs in the exercise in the text-book.

2. The teacher will make up two or three other suitable exercises and write them on the black-board.

3. The teacher will write a list of verbs on the black-board. Let the pupils compose sentences containing these, and then classify the verbs as complete or incomplete.

THE OBJECT AND THE SUBJECTIVE COMPLETION
(OR COMPLEMENT) OF THE VERB.

Before this topic is taught, the pupils should have *a great deal of practice* in selecting modifiers of verbs and explaining their function.

I. The following sentences are on the black-board:

1. The dog barks fiercely.
2. Jack broke his pencil yesterday.
3. My brother was busy.
4. My brothers are farmers.
5. The boys fed the cows.

By questioning analyse the sentences, then review complete and incomplete verbs and modifiers. Label the words suitably as they are taken; thus, *barks*—a complete verb; *fiercely*—a modifier; *broke*—an incomplete verb; *yesterday*—a modifier; *his*—a modifier; *was*—an incomplete verb.

II. In sentence 2, what word is used with the incomplete verb *broke* to make the statement complete? (The word *pencil*)

Write on the black-board—The word *pencil* completes the statement.

In sentence 3, what word is used with the verb *was* to make the statement complete? (The word *busy*)

Write on the black-board—The word *busy* completes the statement. How are these two words—*pencil*, *busy*—alike? (Each is used to complete a statement.)

Now, let us find how they are *different*.

III. 1. In sentence 2, what action is asserted? (The action of breaking)

What word expresses this action? (The verb *broke* expresses this action.)

Write this statement on the black-board.

What are we told that Jack broke? (His pencil)
What then was acted upon? (The pencil)

What word in the sentence represents (denotes, stands for) the thing acted upon? (The word *pencil* represents the thing acted upon.)

Write this answer on the black-board. Several pupils should be asked the last question and the following one, in order to impress the points. What, then, are the two functions of the word *pencil*? (It completes the statement. It represents the thing acted upon.)

2. Now read sentences 2 and 3 again. In 2, the verb *broke* expresses action. How does the verb *was* differ from the verb *broke*? (The verb *was* does not express action.) Write this answer on the black-board.

How is my brother described in sentence 3? (As being *busy*) What word is used to describe my brother? (The word *busy*) What, then, is the function of the word *busy*? (It describes my brother.)

Write this statement on the black-board.

3. How are the words *pencil* and *busy* alike in function? (Both complete the statement.)

How are they different in function? (Answer as above.)

4. By similar questioning, develop the corresponding facts regarding the function of the words *farmers* and *cows* in sentences 4 and 5.

IV. In these sentences select the completing words and tell whether they represent the person or thing acted upon or describe some person or thing.

The teacher should have a list of suitable sentences ready on the black-board for this step in the lesson. A number of examples should be studied, to give the pupils facility in distinguishing the two kinds of completing words. Tabulate the results of the pupils' classification on the black-board. If it is thought advisable, bring out by further questioning the fact that words like *busy* describe the person or thing denoted by the subject.

V. Now give the names—object of the verb, and subjective completion (or complement) of the verb.

VI. Ask the pupils to tell what they have learned, in answer to such questions as these: What have you found that the object of the verb does? What is the work (or function) of the subjective completion of the verb? How are the object and the subjective completion alike? How are they different?

VII. 1. Suitable application exercises are to be found in the text-book.

2. Ask the pupils to tell whether the italicized words in the following sentences are objects, subject completions, or adverbs, giving reasons:

1. My brother ploughed the *garden*.
2. We arrived *early*.
3. Leave your *fork* here.
4. Tom ploughs *well*.
5. *Yesterday* I picked the *apples*.
6. This girl is called *Joy*.
7. My neighbour grows good *wheat*.
8. Tom is *well*.
9. The boy grew *strong again*.
10. The boys became *tired* when they walked so *fast*.

3. The pupils will compose sentences, using the following incomplete verbs and tell whether the completing parts are objects or subjective completions:

lost, is, tell, were, ploughed, look, led, throw, became, raise, seem.

ANALYSIS

A more advanced stage of analysis is now reached, in which the pupil should be able to give all the parts of the sentence in a systematic way. It is very important, too, that daily practice in the analysis of sentences be given the pupil, in order that the facts and principles discovered about the sentence may not be forgotten.

In conducting lessons in grammatical analysis the teacher should train the pupil as early in the course as possible to *ask himself the questions* leading to the analysis of the sentence.

To do this the teacher may use suitable sentences on the black-board, but instead of asking the pupil the necessary questions, *the teacher may allow the pupil to ask the questions, which the teacher answers.*

The following outline will suggest the procedure in a lesson in analysis in the early stages of the course:

Sentence I

Two young rabbits ran quickly across the road.

Read this sentence aloud and tell me what things are spoken of. (Rabbits) What word stands for the things spoken of? (The word *rabbits*) The teacher underlines this word. What do you call this part of the sentence? (The bare subject) How many rabbits are spoken of? (Two) What word tells how many rabbits are spoken of? (Word *two*) The teacher brackets this word. What part of the sentence is this? (A modifier of the subject) What kind of rabbits were they? (Young) What word tells what kind of rabbits they were? (The word *young*) The teacher brackets this

word. What do you call this word in the sentence? (A modifier of the subject) What did the rabbits do? (They ran.) What word tells us what they did? (The word *ran*) The teacher underlines doubly this word. What part of the sentence is this word? (The bare predicate) How did the rabbits run? (Quickly) What word tells us how the rabbits ran? (The word *quickly*) The teacher brackets this word with square brackets. What part of the sentence is this word? (A modifier of the bare predicate) Where did the rabbits run? (Across the road) What words tell where they ran? (The words *across the road*) The teacher brackets these words with square brackets. Now read the sentence and name all the parts.

At the end of the lesson the sentence will appear on the black-board thus:

(Two) (young) rabbits | ran [quickly] [across the road.]

Sentence II.

My brother threw heavy bags against the door.

Read this sentence to find who is spoken of, and what is said about him. (Pupils read.) What word denotes the person spoken of? (The word *brother*) What part of the sentence is this word? (The bare subject) What word shows whose brother is spoken of? (The word *My*) What part of the sentence is this? (A modifier of the bare subject) What word tells what my brother did? (The verb *threw*) What part of the sentence is this? (The bare predicate) What word tells us what he threw? (The word *bags*) What part of the sentence is this word then? (The object of the verb) What word tells what kind of bags they were? (The word *heavy*) What part of the sentence is this? (A modifier of the object)

What words tell where he threw the bags? (The words *against the door*) Now read the sentence again and tell the name of each part.

At suitable intervals the teacher will have marked the parts of the sentence so that at the close of the lesson it will appear thus:

(My) brother | threw (heavy) bags [against the door.]

Sentence III

Small potatoes which grew in this soil are quite useless.

By similar questioning the pupil may be led to analyse this more complicated sentence, even before he has been taught the subordinate clause. At the close of the lesson it might appear thus:

(Small) potatoes (which grew in this soil) | are [quite]
useless.

GRAPHIC ANALYSIS

Another method of representing the elements of the sentence graphically is illustrated below:

Each of them carried between its talons stones of a monstrous size.

<i>Subject</i>	<i>Predicate</i>	<i>Object</i>
Each	carried	stones
of them	between its talons	of a monstrous size

In the earlier stages of the course in grammatical analysis, it is of considerable help to the pupil to see the parts of the sentence marked off from each other in the ways illustrated above. But when the pupil has

attained a certain proficiency in analysing sentences, such visual aids have served their purpose and need no longer be used.

THE KINDS OF SENTENCE

The pupil should now be ready to learn to classify sentences according to their composition. Then, through the study of the complex sentence, he will secure the knowledge of subordinate clauses and of phrases which is necessary as a basis for the study of the two remaining parts of speech—the preposition and the conjunction.

THE SIMPLE AND THE COMPLEX SENTENCES

I. Use the following sentences on the black-board:

1. The man | left his book on the table.
2. The boy (who helped me) | wrote a fine letter.

Have each sentence analysed. As the parts are named, mark as indicated.

Let a pupil tell why each is a sentence; namely, because it expresses a complete thought.

II. Let us see what difference we can find between these two types of sentence.

III. 1. How many statements are there in sentence 1? (One) Teacher writes on the black-board—This sentence contains one statement.

Now read a statement made in sentence 2. (The boy wrote a fine letter.)

What else did the boy do? What part of speech is *helped*? What word represents boy?

Now read a second statement found in sentence 2.

What does this second statement modify? (It modifies the subject *boy*.)

Then what does this second statement depend upon? (It depends upon the subject *boy*.)

Since this statement depends upon another word, it may be called by this name. Teacher now writes the name "*a dependent statement*" on the black-board.

Why is it called a dependent statement?

What part of this sentence contains a dependent statement? (The subject)

Teacher now writes on the black-board—The subject of this sentence contains a dependent statement.

What have we just found out about the subject of sentence 2 in contrast with the subject of sentence 1? (It contains a dependent statement.) What is the difference between sentence 1 and sentence 2?

2. Similarly, develop the fact that in each of the sentences:

1. The girls hurried because the rain began to fall.
2. We cannot go when the roads are muddy.

the predicate contains a dependent statement.

IV. From the following sentences let the pupil select those containing only one statement and those having a dependent statement in the subject or predicate. The dependent statement should be bracketed in each case:

1. We saw fifty birds on the roof.
2. My brother visited us when we lived in London.
3. Many people motored to the Exhibition.
4. What did you see yesterday?
5. People who live in glass houses should not throw stones.
6. We shall help you if you come to us.
7. You know the man who lives here.

8. Slowly and sadly we laid him down.
9. They thought about the plan yesterday.
10. We saw many people when we arrived.
11. You know the boys who found the lost cow.
12. Tom said that he wanted an apple.
13. The book which you borrowed is an old one.
14. Many people lost their way in the darkness.

V. How are sentences 1, 3, 4, 8, etc., alike? (Each contains only one statement.)

These sentences and others like them are known by the name—simple sentence.

How are the other sentences alike? (Each sentence has a dependent statement in the subject or the predicate.)

Such sentences are known by this name. Write *complex sentence* on the black-board.

VI. In answer to questions, let the pupils state the facts discovered, in suitable language.

VII. Suitable application exercises will be found in the text-book. These should be supplemented by others prepared by the teacher.

In the next lesson, review the simple and the complex sentences, using such sentences as these on the black-board:

1. Many people of the village lost their way in the storm.
2. The citizens who signed this petition will go to the meeting to-night.

How many statements are there in sentence 1? (One) What kind of sentence is it then? (A simple sentence)

Analyse sentence 2.

How many statements are there? (Two) Read the first; the second.

What kind of statement is the second? (A dependent statement)

What kind of sentence is it then? Why?

Now take up the application exercises assigned in the last lesson. Have the dependent statement in each sentence bracketed or underlined on the black-board.

When the pupils are quite familiar with the significance of the term, dependent statement, they may be given the other name—subordinate clause.

Let the pupils study several subordinate clauses that they may see that each subordinate clause—

1. Is a group of words.
2. Has both subject and predicate.
3. Has the value of a single part of speech.

If it is desired the pupils may now be led to formulate a definition of a subordinate clause.

After the pupils have had some practice in identifying simple and complex sentences, they may be given exercises similar to the following:

I. Change each of the following to a complex sentence.

1. The very stormy day kept us at home.
2. We did our home work. Then mother let us play.
3. We know the man. He was driving a lame horse.

II. Change each of the following to simple sentences:

1. We saw a great many sparrows, and we saw some robins, and we saw a blackbird.
2. When we saw the stranger coming toward us, we ran into the woods.
3. Father was bringing lots of eggs and he had some apples and he gave us a few pears.

At suitable intervals the compound sentence and the phrase should be taught. Pupils should also have much practice in analysing sentences, including the complex sentence.

In a series of lessons on the grammatical values of subordinate clauses, teach the adjective clause first, then the adverbial clause. See that the pupil is thoroughly familiar with these two classes before teaching the noun clause.

THE NOUN CLAUSE

I. Use sentences like the following on the black-board:

1. The book that you are reading is new.
2. Jack hurried because he was cold.
3. The boys heard what you said.
4. The boys heard your address.
5. Tom said that he would help us.
6. Why they are absent is a mystery.

Review the two known types—the adjective and the adverb clauses, in sentences 1 and 2.

II. The pupils' problem is to discover what kind of subordinate clause is found in sentence 3.

III. Ask the pupils to analyse sentence 4 first, then sentence 3, underline the object in each sentence as it is given. Develop the facts that the object *address* is a noun and that the subordinate clause *what you said* takes the place of a noun (or has the value of a noun.) Similarly, develop the fact that the subordinate clauses in sentences 5 and 6 also have the value of nouns.

IV. From the following sentences have the pupils select the subordinate clauses and tell which have the value of nouns. The latter should be underlined.

1. He gave the dog a bone which he had brought.
2. Jack said that he would come with us.
3. The boys discovered what the rabbit had done.
4. What you say is true.
5. We shall go if the sun shines.
6. My brother believed that you were too busy.
7. The man did not know what we were doing.
8. We could plainly see that they were ill.
9. The pupils who came late *knew* that they were too *slow*.
10. When we arrived we thought every one else was present.

Ask the pupils to tell how all the underlined clauses are alike.

V. Ask the pupils to suggest a suitable name for clauses that have the value of a noun.

VI. The pupils tell what they have learned regarding the noun clause.

VII. Suitable exercises involving the recognition of noun clauses are assigned from time to time.

PHRASES

When the pupils have become quite proficient in classifying subordinate clauses and in analysing complex sentences, different kinds of phrases will be taught, including noun, verb, adjective, and adverb phrases. Additional practice in the recognition of such phrases will be provided through the analysis of suitable sentences.

*“If the clear presentation of thought in sentences is set as the objective in the grammar course, it would

**How Much English Grammar?*, Stormzand & O'Shea, p. 56

appear that exercises should be devised which will increase facility in the use of adjectival phrases."

In order to give practice with adjectival phrases, such exercises as the following may be assigned:

I. In the following sentences, substitute adjective phrases for the italicized adjectives:

1. We met a *kind-hearted* gentleman.
2. A *talented* musician entertained our *European* friends.
3. The boy proved to be a *capable* lad.
4. A *French* nobleman and a *German* farmer were chatting by the *garden* gate.
5. A *dignified* lady stopped to speak to us.
6. It all happened on a *September* morning.
7. The *river* path was covered with water.

II. Fill the blanks in these sentences with suitable adjective phrases:

1. Did you see a horse ——— on the road?
2. People ——— were living in a house ———.
3. Your brother ——— wants to buy a farm ———.
4. A boy ——— and the teacher ——— were standing on the top ———.
5. We have never seen a dog ———.
6. Thousands ——— were flying south.
7. We bought a pound ——— and a quart ———.
8. I will sell you a load ———.
9. A dog ——— was limping along behind a man ———.

LESSON I: THE PREPOSITION

I. Use such a sentence as:

1. The flowers *on* my desk always look fresh.

Ask a pupil to analyse the sentence. Have him tell the part of speech of the words *flowers*, *my*, *look*, etc.

II. When the pupil is asked to classify the word *on*, he does not know how to do it. His problem, then, is to discover the function of such a word in the sentence.

III. By questioning develop the facts that *on my desk* is a phrase, that the important parts of it are the words *on* and *desk*, that there would be no phrase if the word *on* were omitted, and that the word *on*, therefore, helps to form a phrase. Write the last fact on the black-board.

Read the complete subject again. What two words in this subject are joined together by another word? (The words *desk* and *flowers*) What word joins them? (The word *on*) What does the word *on* do? (It joins the noun *desk* and the word *flowers*.) Write this answer on the black-board.

What are the two things that the word *on* does in the sentence? (Answer as above.)

Now have the pupils examine the following sentences

2. A letter from them is always welcome.
3. The boys at the gate are whistling for us.

By questioning develop the corresponding facts regarding the function of the words *from*, *at*, and *for*, and write them on the black-board.

Have the pupils tell how the words *on*, *from*, *at*, and *for*, in these sentences are alike. The statement on the black-board may now be modified and made to read thus—The word *on* (or *from*, *at*, *for*) helps to form a phrase and joins a noun or a pronoun in the phrase to another word in the sentence.

IV. Turn to the following group of sentences on the black-board. Have the pupils select other words that are similar in function and give the reason for their selection in each case. Underline the words as they are selected.

1. The pen in my pocket was bought at this store.
2. They came to the town yesterday.
3. The noise from the factory reached our ears during the morning.
4. The boys played with us on Saturday.
5. A box of pencils was placed under the table.

Ask the pupils to tell how all the underlined words are alike.

V. Now tell the class that such words as these are called *prepositions*.

VI, VII. The usual procedure is followed after giving the name.

LESSON II: THE PREPOSITION

When we teach the facts that a preposition helps to form a phrase and joins a noun or pronoun in the phrase to another word, we differentiate it from every other part of speech. The relating function of the preposition may be taught in a second lesson, after reviewing briefly and writing on the black-board the facts taken in the first lesson.

Use the following sentences for this purpose:

1. The flower on my desk always looks fresh.
2. The book under my desk is interesting.
3. The box beside my desk contains papers.

1. In sentence 1, what two things are related to each other in position? (The flower and the desk) Come and show me the two things that are related to each other in position. What word shows the nature of the relation existing between the flower and the desk? (The word *on*) What does the word *on* do in the sentence? (It shows the relation in position between the flower and the desk.) Write this statement after the

other two statements of its function recalled at the beginning of the lesson.

2. In a similar way, develop the facts that in sentence 2 the word *under* shows the relation between the book and the desk, while in sentence 3 the word *beside* shows the relation between the box and the desk.)

3. How do the flower and the book differ in relation to the desk? (They differ in position.) What words indicate this difference in position? (The words *on* and *under*) How do the book and the box differ in relation to the desk? (They differ in position) What words indicate this difference? (The words *under* and *beside*)

The three statements of the function of each of these words now appear on the black-board, thus:

The word *on* (*under*, *beside*)—

- (1) Helps to form a phrase,
- (2) Joins a noun in the phrase to another word,
- (3) Shows the relation between the desk and the flower (book, box).

Now draw the pupils' attention to the fact that the third statement means the same as the following: It shows the relation between the things denoted by these words (which it joins). Write the third statement in this form.

4. In a similar manner develop the three parts of the function of the words *before* and *after* in the sentences:

1. Tom spoke before the debate.
2. Jack spoke after the debate.

Lead the pupils to see that these words indicate the relation between the speaking and the debate from the standpoint of time.

5. Now question the pupils regarding the function of the italicized word in each of the following sentences:

1. I walk *toward* the door.
2. You walk *through* the door.
3. Mary walks *past* the door.
4. The boys *from* the village enjoyed themselves *at* the beach.
5. The girls *in* the country have many advantages.

Let the pupils examine enough examples to see that in every case the threefold function is performed. Ask a pupil to give the name again and state concisely what he has found to be the function of the preposition.

6. Assign a suitable application exercise.

The teacher will notice that while the nature of the relation is indicated clearly by the prepositions in the above sentences, it is not always easy to explain the character of this relation.

THE CONJUNCTION

After sufficient practice with prepositions, the pupil is ready for the remaining part of speech—the conjunction. The various functions of the conjunction should be taught in a series of two or three separate lessons; then these functions should be summarized in a review lesson. In the first one or two lessons, show that the conjunction may join like parts of the sentence—two words or two phrases or two clauses used in the same way in the sentence or two sentences.

In another lesson, show how the conjunction may join two unlike parts—a subordinate clause and a word—and show the relation between them.

The following outline will suggest the procedure in this lesson.

I. Use these sentences:

1. The boys and the girls ran towards the house.
2. They ran home because it was raining.
3. We shall wait till you call.
4. Our friends will help you if you ask them.

A pupil reads and analyses sentence 1. Another pupil classifies such words as *girls*, *towards*, *and*, *was raining*.

II. When asked to classify the word *because*, the pupils realize a new problem.

III. 1. Let the pupils compare the modifiers of the verb *ran* in sentences 1 and 2, and see that *towards the house* is a phrase telling where the girls and the boys ran, while *because it was raining* is a statement telling why they ran.

To what word is the subordinate statement joined? (To the verb *ran*) What word joins them? (The word *because* joins them.) What idea does the subordinate clause express? (It tells why they ran, or the cause of the running.) What word connects the subordinate clause to the verb *ran*? (The word *because*) What relation does the word *because* denote in this sentence? What is the work done by the word *because*? (It joins the subordinate clause to the verb *ran* and shows the relation of cause existing between them.)

2. Now question similarly regarding the function of the words *till* and *if*, in sentences 3 and 4. Then ask how the three words, *because*, *till*, and *if*, are alike in function.

IV. From the following sentences pupils select other words similar to the above, and state their function. The words are underlined as selected.

1. Do not cross the bridge until you come to it.

2. Father will lock the door when he comes in.
3. Jack may go if you need him, but Will cannot go now because his work is not finished.
4. Our colt is bigger than yours is.
5. We know why you did not come.

Ask the pupils to tell what is true of all the words underlined.

V. Tell the pupils that the name *conjunction* is also given to all such words as these.

VI. In answer to questions, the pupils now explain the newly discovered function of the conjunction.

VII. 1. From the following extracts the pupils select the conjunctions and explain their function:

(a) Some of you have heard how the wise King Ulysses went to the siege of Troy; and how, after that famous city was taken and burned, he spent ten long years in trying to get back to his own little kingdom of Ithaca. At one time in the course of this voyage, he arrived at an island that looked very green and pleasant. Only a little while before he came thither, he had met with a terrible hurricane, or rather a great many hurricanes at once, which drove his fleet of vessels into a strange part of the sea.

—Hawthorne, *Tanglewood Tales* (adapted)

(b) As she spoke this, she clasped her hands and extended them toward heaven, as she would do if she were imploring mercy on her soul before she made the final plunge. The Templar hesitated, and a resolution which had never yielded to pity or distress gave way to his admiration of her fortitude.

—Scott, *Ivanhoe* (adapted)

2. Fill the blanks with suitable conjunctions:

1. The man is younger ——— his brother is.
2. Put the books ——— papers ——— they belong.
3. Either Tom ——— Will may go ——— this work is done.
4. I did it ——— you asked me.
5. We raise both sheep ——— cows in this county, ——— we do not raise ——— foxes.
6. Tell me ——— you want me to plough the garden.

7. You did not say —— you would plant potatoes ——
corn in this field.
8. We could —— buy —— borrow any seed wheat.
9. You must not leave —— you have written the story
—— drawn the map.

3. Compose sentences using each of the following conjunctions correctly:

But, although, or, because, unless, yet, while, nor, since, that.

CHAPTER VI

CLASSIFICATION OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH

ON the basis of their function, words in the sentence have been divided into seven classes—the parts of speech. A further process of discrimination is called for in classifying the parts of speech on the basis of certain likenesses and differences found to exist. For example, nouns may be classified as common or proper, according as they represent each member of a class of things or a particular member of a class. The chief purpose served by such a classification of nouns is that it enables the pupil to use the capital letter more intelligently.

In the past few years undue emphasis has been placed upon classification by some teachers, their pupils being expected to make fine distinctions which were comparatively useless in everyday life and which called for powers of discrimination which the pupils did not possess. It is quite unnecessary, for example, for young pupils to distinguish between such classes as abstract and concrete nouns, or the various sub-classes of pronominal adjectives.

While the classification of verbs is placed next to that of nouns in the text-book, it may well be deferred till after the classification of pronouns and of adjectives has been taught.

THE CLASSIFICATION OF NOUNS

Naturally the first lesson in classification deals with the noun—the easiest and the commonest of the parts

of speech, and in this lesson the difference between the common and the proper noun is made clear.

The next classification is made on the basis of the sex of the person or thing denoted by the noun. In this lesson care must be taken that the pupils do not confuse the terms sex and gender, which are not synonymous.

In order to prevent difficulties in respect to subject and predicate agreement later in the course, pupils should also be taught the collective noun. The teaching of these topics does not present any particular difficulty.

THE CLASSIFICATION OF PRONOUNS

Several developing lessons will be required to teach the classes of pronouns. While some pupils can take more in a lesson than others, the following division of the subject is suggested as suitable for the average class:

First lesson—Teach pronouns of the first person, pronouns of the second person, pronouns of the third person—personal pronouns.

Second lesson—Review personal pronouns, and teach demonstrative pronouns.

Third lesson—Review the above, and teach interrogative and indefinite pronouns.

Fourth lesson—Review the conjunction, and teach relative or conjunctive pronouns.

In a later lesson, review all the classes of pronouns.

Keep the classes fresh in the pupil's mind by frequent references to them as examples are met with.

THE RELATIVE (OR CONJUNCTIVE) PRONOUN

I. Use the following sentences:

1. *They* came *because* *we* invited them.
2. I know the man *who* built this house.
3. The horse *that* we rode is for sale.
4. People *who* come from Italy are good workers.

Make an analysis of sentence 1. Have the pupils tell what part of speech each italicized word is, with reasons for their answers. If necessary, use other examples to call clearly to mind the relating function of the conjunction.

II. Let sentence 2 be read and analysed. Pupils know how the words *I*, *man*, *built*, etc. are used, but do not know the value of the word *who*. Their problem is to discover the functions of such a word as *who*.

III. 1. By questioning, develop the fact that the word *who* stands for the noun *man* and is, therefore, a pronoun. Write this fact on the black-board.

2. By further questioning, develop these facts:

(a) The subordinate clause, *who built this house*, is related to the noun *man*.

(b) The word *who* relates this clause to the noun *man*.

(c) The word *who* is, therefore, a conjunction.

Now have two or three pupils tell all the facts discovered regarding the function of the word *who*.

3. By similar questioning develop the corresponding facts regarding the words *that* in sentence 3 and *who* in sentence 4. Ask the pupils to tell how the words *who*, *that*, and *who* are similar in function.

IV. From a list of suitable sentences on the black-board, the pupils will select other words similar in function to these, and tell how they are similar.

V. After a sufficient number of examples have been examined by the class, the pupils suggest a suitable name for a pronoun that relates a subordinate clause to another word. Write both names—relative, conjunctive—on the black-board. See that the pupils understand the connection between the function of the words and the name.

VI. Ask the pupils to tell what they have found to be the function of any relative pronoun.

VII. A number of suitable application exercises should follow this lesson.

1. Ask the pupils (*a*) to select the relative pronouns from a list of sentences, (*b*) to name the antecedent of each, (*c*) to explain the pronominal and conjunctive function of each.

2. Use a carefully selected group of sentences to lead the class to discover (*a*) that the words *who*, *whose*, *whom*, *that*, *which*, *what* are the common relative pronouns (*b*) that *who*, *whose*, *whom* are used of persons only, *which* is used of things or of persons taken collectively, *that* is used of either persons or things, *what* is used without an antecedent.

3. Direct the pupils to fill the blanks in such sentences as the following with suitable relative pronouns. The teacher should make up other similar exercises.

1. The man —— was here has returned.
2. This is the knife —— I borrowed from you.
3. We do not know the girl —— has just passed.
4. I will give you —— you ask.
5. The boy —— book I found lives on our street.
6. We killed the cat —— ate the little birds.
7. That is the man —— we met yesterday.
8. You have brought the money —— we needed.
9. The grounds were muddy, —— made the game exciting.

THE CLASSIFICATION OF PRONOUNS

A TOPICAL REVIEW LESSON

1. Use the following sentences on the black-board:

1. I gave him a book, but they did not see me do it.
2. Who believes that these are your apples?
3. Take this to somebody at the store.
4. All who speak of that say the same thing.
5. Which of the houses did she prefer?
6. Some of the boys that gave us the pears were quite young.
7. Whom did you see at the office?
8. You are welcome to those which he has brought.

Ask a pupil to read sentence 1, tell what part of speech the word *I* is, and give the reason for his answer.

2. We have a number of other pronouns in these sentences. Let us find out how all these are used.

3. By questioning develop the following facts and arrange them on the black-board as indicated:

<i>Pronouns</i>	<i>Uses</i>	<i>Name</i>
1. I, him, they, me, it 5. she 6. us 7. you 8. You, he	Denote the speaker, the person addressed, or the person or thing spoken about	Personal
2. these 3. this 4. that 8. those	Point out something	Demonstrative
2. Who 5. Which 7. Whom	Are used in asking questions	Interrogative
3. somebody 4. All 6. Some	Refer indefinitely to persons or things	Indefinite
4. who 6. that 8. which	Refer to antecedent nouns and relate subordinate clauses to other words	Relative

4. After arranging the pronouns in groups in this way, ask the pupils to tell how the words in each group are alike in function and then give the name of each group. Write the names in the third column. If desirable, ask the pupils to formulate a definition of each class of pronoun.

NOTE—Some grammarians prefer to regard only pronouns of the first person and pronouns of the second person as personal

pronouns. Pronouns of the third person are then further classified as demonstrative (including he, she, it, etc.), interrogative, and indefinite. If the teacher so desires, this classification may be followed.

THE CLASSIFICATION OF ADJECTIVES

In the first lesson, teach descriptive (or qualifying) adjectives, articles, and numerals. In another lesson review the pronoun briefly and teach the pronominal adjective.

When the pupil is familiar with these classes, teach the significance of the positive, comparative, and superlative degree forms of the descriptive adjective. In another lesson have the pupils examine a number of examples of suffix comparison and of phrasal comparison, and thus discover for themselves how ordinary adjectives are compared. Irregular forms and adjectives that do not admit of comparison may then be illustrated.

CLASSIFICATION OF ADJECTIVES ACCORDING TO MEANING

A TOPICAL REVIEW LESSON

Use such a list of sentences as the following:

1. We bought these four sweet oranges for the boy.
2. A shabby little man knocked at our door.
3. At the corner of that street stood an elderly woman with her two happy grandchildren.
4. You are the tenth man to come for some honey.

The procedure in this lesson will be similar to that suggested for the lesson on the classification of pronouns. The black-board summary at the close of the lesson would appear thus:

<i>Adjectives</i>	<i>Uses</i>	<i>Name</i>
1. sweet 2. shabby, little 3. elderly, happy	Denotes a quality of some person or thing or describes some person or thing	Descriptive (or qualifying) adjectives
1. four 3. two 4. tenth	Denotes number or order	Numerals
1. those 2. our 3. that, her 4. some	Have some pronominal function	Pronominal adjectives
the, a, an		Articles

THE CLASSIFICATION OF ADJECTIVES ACCORDING TO FORM

THE COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES

I. Use such sentences as these:

1. John is a tall boy.
2. George is a taller boy than John.
3. Will is the tallest boy of the three.

Ask the pupils to tell what part of speech the words *tall*, *taller*, *tallest* are. What kind of adjective is each? (Descriptive) Why?

II. We see that these three adjectives are similar in meaning, but that they are all different in form. Let us find out the reasons for these differences in form.

III. By questioning, develop the following facts and note them on the black-board:

1. In sentence 1 the form *tall* signifies that the boy John possesses a certain quality—tallness.

2. In sentence 2, two boys are being compared. The form *taller* signifies that the boy George possesses a greater degree (or measure) of a certain quality—tallness—than John does.

3. In sentence 3, more than two boys are being compared.

The form *tallest* implies that one boy, Will, possesses a greater degree of a certain quality—tallness—than either John or George, or The form *tallest* implies that of all the boys compared, Will possesses the greatest degree of a certain quality—tallness.

IV-VII. Now ask the pupils to study a number of other examples illustrating similar distinctions, until they can explain readily the significance of each of the forms. Then give the names and conclude the lesson with the usual steps.

THE CLASSIFICATION OF VERBS

I. The following sentences are ready on the black-board.

1. The bird sings.
2. The bird eats crumbs.
3. The bird is pretty.
4. The rain falls.
5. The boys threw the ball.
6. The day was fine.

The pupils read sentences 1, 2, 3, one by one, analyse them, and classify the verbs as complete or incomplete.

Underline the verbs as selected, and write their names after the sentences.

II. Suggest to the pupils the need of learning to distinguish these verbs more exactly or accurately.

III. 1. What action does the verb *sings* in sentence 1 express? (It expresses the action of singing.)

What action does the verb *eats* in sentence 2 express? (It expresses the action of eating.)

Upon what was the action of eating exerted? (Upon the crumbs)

What word denotes the thing upon which the action was exerted? (The word *crumbs*)

How are the verbs *sings* and *eats* alike? (Both verbs express action.)

2. What does the verb *eats* require to complete it? (It requires a word—*crumbs*.)

What does this word stand for (or denote)? (It stands for the thing upon which the action was exerted, or It stands for the thing acted upon.)

How are the verbs *sings* and *eats* different? (The verb *sings* is complete; the verb *eats* requires a word which denotes the thing acted upon.)

3. Now look at the verb *is* in sentence 3. How is it like the verb *eats*? (It is incomplete.)

The verb *eats* expresses action. How does the verb *is* differ from the verb *eats*? (It does not express action.)

What does it denote or express? If the pupils are puzzled, state that it does not express meaning.

What is it that is pretty? The bird.

How are these two parts, *bird* and *pretty*, joined or linked together? (By the verb *is*)

What does the verb *is* do in the sentence? (It simply joins or links together the subject and the complement, (or the subjective completion.)

All the above facts will be written to the right of their respective sentences on the black-board as they are developed.

4. By similar questioning, develop the following facts regarding the verbs in sentences 4, 5, 6.

In sentence 4, the verb *falls* is complete. It expresses action.

In sentence 5, the verb *threw* is incomplete. It expresses action. It requires a noun to complete it.

In sentence 6, the verb *was* is incomplete. It does not express action. It joins the subject and the complement.

Now lead the pupils to tell how the verbs *sings* and *falls*, *eats* and *threw*, *is* and *was*, are similar, how each pair differs from the other, etc.

IV. The pupils will select the verbs from as many of the following sentences as necessary and classify them as indicated below, or label them 1, 2, 3; *a*, *b*, *c*, etc, or in some other way.

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 1. My brother sharpened his pencil. | 6. The boys slept well. |
| 2. Tom was tired. | 7. The girls look happy. |
| 3. Our apples were ripe. | 8. The horse ran through the gate. |
| 4. Grandfather walks slowly. | 9. We broke the glass yesterday. |
| 5. The dog eats the bone. | 10. Your book became useful. |

<i>Complete Verbs</i>	<i>Incomplete Verbs</i>	
They express action	That require a noun denoting the thing acted upon	That join the subject and the complement (subjective completion)
4. walks 6. slept 8. ran	1. sharpened 5. eats 9. broke	2. was 3. were 7. look 10. became

The pupils now tell briefly what is true of the verbs in each of the three groups.

V. Give the new names—intransitive, transitive, and linking.

VI. Ask the pupils to tell the characteristics of each of the classes of verbs.

VII. 1. A suitable exercise is found in Chapter XVIII of the text-book.

2. Other exercises in preceding Chapters of the text-book and various paragraphs from the Readers may also be used. Pupils should be given a great deal of practice in classifying verbs in succeeding lessons, until the distinctions between the classes of verbs are mastered.

In a second lesson on this topic, use such a sentence as the following to review the facts taught in the first lesson:

The teamster was busy, yet he brought his team to help us when our car suddenly stopped.

In the following sentences lead the pupils to see that in each sentence the italicized verb is transitive, because it expresses action which is exerted upon something named in the sentence.

1. The boy *broke* his knife.
2. His knife *was broken* by the boy.
3. The bird *is eating* the crumbs.
4. The crumbs *are being eaten* by the bird.
5. Jack *fed* the calf.
6. The calf *was fed* by Jack.

THE INFINITIVE

I. Write on the black-board these sentences:

1. The boys who hoed the garden saw a tiny opening in the fence.
2. Swimming strengthens one's body.

By questioning recall the following facts: The words *boys*, *garden*, *opening*, *fence*, in sentence 1, are name-words, or nouns.

The word *Swimming* in sentence 2 is a noun, the name of an action. (The use of nouns in -ing in this part of the lesson helps the pupils to understand the infinitive in -ing.)

Also recall these facts:

1. A noun is a name-word.
2. A noun may be subject or object of a verb.
3. A noun may be object of a preposition.
4. The words *hoed* and *saw* in sentence 1 are verbs.
5. A verb may be completed by an object, etc.
6. A verb may be modified by an adverb, etc.

As these facts are obtained from the class, they should be written on the black-board. Moreover,

marking the words, bracketing parts, labelling, underlining, etc., all help the pupils to make distinctions. The freest possible use should be made of such visual aids.

II. The pupils now read sentence 3 below:

3. Hoeing the potatoes too soon caused some damage.
4. Playing marbles on the road was good fun.
5. The boys like picking apples from the big tree.

The teacher asks: What part of speech is the word *potatoes*? (A noun) The word *caused*? (A verb) What would you call the word *hoeing*? (Pupils do not know.) The pupil who has the right attitude toward the work now feels a need of knowing such words as "hoeing" and a desire to know them. Hence the teacher's suggestion that they proceed to find out what they can about this word is readily accepted.

III. 1. The teacher now says: Read sentence 3 again and tell the name of the action that caused the damage. (The action of hoeing)

What kind of word is the word *hoeing* then? (A name-word)

What is the complete subject of the verb *caused*? (The words *hoeing the potatoes too soon*)

What is the most important word in this subject? (The word *hoeing*)

What two facts have we now learned about the word *hoeing*? (It is a name-word. It is subject of the verb.)

What part of speech is it then? (A noun)

The summary of facts written on the black-board as soon as given by the pupils will appear thus:

Word *hoeing*—

- | | | |
|---------------------------------------|---|---------------------|
| (1) A name-word | } | Hence it is a noun. |
| (2) Subject of the verb <i>caused</i> | | |

2. What does the word *hoeing* express? (It expresses action.) On what does the action of hoeing fall? How is the word *hoeing* modified? (By the adverb *too soon*)

Because of these facts, what part of speech is the word *hoeing*? (A verb)

The following facts have been added meanwhile to the black-board summary:

- | | | |
|----------------------------|---|---------------------|
| (3) Used to express action | } | Hence it is a verb. |
| (4) Completed like a verb | | |
| (5) Modified like a verb | | |

3. What have we found out about the word *hoeing*? (It has the nature of a noun and of a verb.)

Why do we say that it has the nature of a noun? Of a verb? (Because of the facts noted above)

4. By similar questioning develop the corresponding facts regarding the words *Playing* and *picking* in sentences 4 and 5. Have the pupils tell how these words are alike.

IV. The pupils examine the following sentences to find other words similar to those discussed above, which have the nature of noun and verb:

1. Throwing stones causes trouble sometimes.
2. We succeeded, by throwing the rope over the tree.
3. They like throwing stones at the wire.
4. They like to throw stones at the wire.
5. To climb to the top required much skill.
6. They wish to climb to the top.
7. By pulling the wire slowly, he succeeded in opening the door from the outside.

After the pupils have selected the word in each sentence, and have stated the facts regarding it, the teacher asks: How are all these underlined words alike? (They have the nature of a noun and of a verb.)

V. What would be a good name for such words? The pupils will probably suggest the name *verbal noun*.

The teacher may then give the other name, *infinitive*. Both names are written on the black-board.

VI. No formal definition should be called for at this point; but to lead the pupils to explain the function of the newly discovered word, ask such questions as the following:

- What have you found out about a verbal noun?
- What is the peculiar thing about the infinitive?
- Why is the word *hoeing* called an infinitive?
- How is an infinitive like a noun?
- Why is an infinitive said to be a verb?

VII. A suitable application exercise is found in the text-book.

In ungraded schools, where the lesson period is very short, the work as outlined in some of the steps above may be shortened. But special care should be taken in Step III to see that each pupil understands each point, and enough examples should be studied in Step IV to make sure that the pupils have grasped the characteristics of the infinitive before the name is given.

Probably young teachers follow rather closely the outline of the course as given in the text-book. After the pupils have become quite familiar with the infinitive,

its three different forms may be discussed. But the study of the uses of the infinitive with "to" referred to on page 189, Ontario Public School Composition and Grammar, Note I, may well be deferred for some time.

An Entrance pupil will have little difficulty in understanding the adjectival and the adverbial uses of the noun, and, consequently, of the gerundial infinitive. For a treatment of this topic, see Chapter X.

CHAPTER VII

INFLECTION

AMONG the highly inflected languages are Latin, Greek, and modern German. In these languages a change in the meaning of a word or in its relation to other words in the sentence is usually expressed by a change in the *form* of the word. In Latin there are five different declensions of nouns, for example; and each of these declensions has several case-forms in the singular number and several in the plural.

Anglo-Saxon, from which modern English was derived, was also a highly inflected language. But during the past 800 years many of the inflections of Anglo-Saxon have disappeared. In modern English, modifications of our thought are shown, for the most part, not by changing the forms of our words, but by the order of the words in the sentence, or by the use of phrasal combinations or of prepositions, auxiliary verbs, etc. The few inflections remaining in English may be taught in such a way as to give the pupil an understanding of the significance of inflection in other languages, and also to provide him with a standard by which to judge the correctness of his own spoken or written language.

The difference between a highly inflected language and one with few inflections is strikingly expressed in the following paragraph from Professor Jespersen's *Progress in Language*: pages 35-36: "If we compare a group of Latin words, such as *opera virorum omnium bonorum veterum* with a corresponding group in a few other languages of a less inflectional type; Old English,

ealra godra ealdra manna weorc; Danish, *alle gode gamle maends vacker*; Modern English, *all good old men's works*, we perceive, by analysing the ideas expressed by the several words, that the Romans said really: 'work', plural, nominative or accusative + 'man', plural, masculine, genitive + 'all', plural, genitive + 'old', plural, masculine, genitive. Leaving *opera* out of consideration, we find that 'plural number' is expressed four times, 'genitive case' also four times, and 'masculine gender' twice. In Old English the signs of number and case are found four times each, while there is no indication of gender. In Danish the plural number is marked four times and the case once. And finally, in Modern English, we find each idea expressed only once; and as nothing is lost in clearness, this method, as being the easiest and shortest, must be considered the best."*

Confusion sometimes arises in the pupil's mind because of the seeming likeness between derived forms and inflected forms in English. Consequently, a preliminary lesson or two on derivatives will be advisable, to pave the way for a clearer understanding of inflected forms.

NOTE—The preceding paragraphs have been inserted to give the teacher a clearer idea of what inflection is, based on the history of language.

DERIVED FORMS

I. Use the following sentences:

1. I have a sweet apple.
2. The bird sang sweetly.
3. They sweeten their tea with sugar.
4. The sweetness of the apple was noticeable.

**The Teaching of English in England*; London, 1921, p. 288

Ask the pupils to read sentences 1 and 2. What two words in these two sentences are much alike in form? (The words *sweet* and *sweetly*) Underline these words.

II. Let us study these two words to find the nature of the connection between them.

III. 1. By questioning lead the pupils to discover:

(a) That the word *sweetly* is formed from the word *sweet* by adding *ly*.

(b) That the word *sweetly* is a new word; it is even a different part of speech.

Tabulate these facts on the black-board.

2. Develop, similarly, the facts that the words *sweeten* and *sweetness* in sentences 3 and 4, are also formed from the word *sweet* by adding *en* and *ness* respectively, and that they are also new words.

What is true of each of the words *sweetly*, *sweeten*, and *sweetness*? (Answer as above.)

IV. Ask the pupils to select from the following sentences the words that have characteristics similar to those of the words discussed above:

1. This is a bright day.
2. Notice the brightness of the sun.
3. They brighten up the room with paint.
4. The sun shines brightly.
5. To-day is brighter than yesterday.
6. Both the prince and the princess praised the heroine.

Underline the words as they are selected. Have the pupils summarize the facts discovered regarding the words taken in Steps III and IV.

V. Tell the pupils that these words are said to be derived from the words *sweet* and *bright*, *prince* and

hero; that all such words are called derived forms, or derivatives; and that the words from which derivatives are formed are called root-words.

VI. Ask the pupils to tell what facts they have learned about derivatives and root-words.

VII. 1. Let the pupils select derivatives from a suitable paragraph or list of sentences—and tell from what root-words they are derived.

2. Let the pupils form derivatives from such words as *man*, *dark*, *friend*, etc., and use each derivative in a sentence.

INFLECTED FORMS

I. Use the following sentences:

1. Jack tells me that he likes the book which I gave him.
2. Your brother and your brother's son were here.
3. Usually I write my letters in the evening, but I wrote this letter in the morning.

Ask the pupils to read sentence 1 and select the words that are much alike in form. (The words *he* and *him*) Underline these words.

Whom does the pronoun *he* represent? (Jack)

Whom does the pronoun *him* represent? (Jack)

II. These words represent the same person. Why should they be different in form? (No one knows.) Let us try to find why they are different in form.

III. 1. (a) By questioning develop the facts that both words are pronouns; that the pronoun *he* is subject of the verb *likes*, while the pronoun *him* is object of the verb *gave*; and that the change in the form of the word is due to a change in its relation.

(b) Develop the corresponding facts regarding the pronouns *I* and *me* in sentence 1, and the nouns *brother* and *brother's* in sentence 2.

2. (a) In connection with sentence 3, develop the facts that the words *write* and *wrote* are both verbs, that they assert the same action, and that the change in the form is here due to a slight change in the meaning.

(b) Develop the corresponding facts regarding the words *letter* and *letters*.

IV. Ask the pupils to select from the following sentences all the words that show a change in form that is due to a change in their relation or their meaning:

1. (a) He knows the man who met us yesterday.

(b) They knew the men whom we met.

2. (a) The boy ploughs the garden.

(b) The boys plough the gardens.

3. I sing the hymns that mother sang to me in my childhood.

Lead the pupils to see that the two words in each pair are the same part of speech. Ask the pupils to tell what is true regarding all the pairs of words discussed in Steps III and IV.

V. Tell the pupils that whenever the form of a word is changed because of a change in its relation or a slight change in its meaning, the word is said to be *inflected*; that the new form of the word is called an *inflected form*; and that the change is called *inflection*.

VI. The pupils tell in answer to suitable questions the facts discovered in the lesson.

VII. 1. Let the pupils select all the inflected words in the following paragraph:

As we expected our landlord the next day, my wife went to make the venison pastry. Moses sat reading, while I taught the

little ones. My daughters seemed equally busy with the rest; and I observed them for a good while cooking something over the fire. I at first supposed they were assisting their mother, but little Dick informed me, in a whisper, that they were making a wash for the face. Washes of all kinds I had a natural antipathy to, for I knew that, instead of mending the complexion, they spoil it. I therefore approached my chair by slow degrees to the fire, and grasping the poker, as if it wanted mending, seemingly by accident overturned the whole composition, and it was too late to begin another."

—Goldsmith: *The Vicar of Wakefield*

2. Lead the pupils to give other inflected forms of these words and tell the part of speech of each: *wife, mother, face, spoil, was, observed, whisper*.

3. Lead the pupils to select the derivatives in the above paragraph and give the root-word from which each is derived.

4. Lead the pupils to form derivatives from the following root-words, use them in sentences, and tell the part of speech of each: *busy, mother, nature, late*.

INFLECTIONS OF NOUNS AND PRONOUNS

NUMBER

Modern English nouns are inflected for number and to a slight extent for case; some pronouns for number and case. The inflection of nouns and pronouns for number presents so little difficulty that the subject is left to the ingenuity of the individual teacher, but the more difficult subject of case is here treated in detail.

CASE

Much of the difficulty in regard to case in nouns and pronouns arises from the two different meanings with which the term is commonly used. By some teachers

the word *case* is applied to the *form* of the word; for example, the Latin *mensa* is called the nominative case, *mensae* the genitive, *mensam* the accusative, etc. By others the term *case* is applied to the *relation* of the word in the sentence; for example, the word *brother* in the sentence, *My brother lost his hat*, is the subject of the verb *lost*, and is, therefore, said to be in the nominative case.

In the lessons on case in English it is best to teach the latter use of the term first. Lead the pupils to understand clearly the three different relations in which nouns and pronouns may be used, and the names that are applied to these three relations. In a separate lesson teach the changes found in the forms of certain of the pronouns and in the form of the noun when used to denote possession.

I. Use these sentences:

1. We suspected the hunter, for he had a gun when we saw him.
2. I dropped my books when my neighbour's dog chased me.
3. Before we found the boy's canoe, we heard both the boy and the dog, though the boy could not see us.

The pupils read sentence 1 and select the inflected pronouns. (He, him) Underline these words.

Ask the pupils to tell for what person each of these pronouns stands. (They all stand for or denote the hunter.)

II. Why have we two different forms when each one stands for the same person? (No one can tell.) Let us try to find the reason.

III. 1. By questioning lead the pupils to discover:
(a) That the word *he* is used as subject of the verb *had*.

(b) That the word *him* is used as object of the verb *had*.

Question as follows:

What is the subject of the verb *had*? (The word *he*)

In what relation is the pronoun *he* used? (It is subject of the verb *had*.) Write this answer on the black-board.

The verb *saw* is transitive. What word is used to complete it? (The word *him*)

In what relation is the word *him* used? (It is object of the verb *saw*.) Write this answer also on the black-board.

2. By similar questions develop the following facts regarding words in sentences 2 and 3.

(a) The pronoun *I* is subject of the verb *dropped*, while the pronoun *me* is object of the verb *chased*.

(b) The noun *neighbour's* is used to express possession.

(c) The pronoun *we* is subject of the verb *found*, while the pronoun *us* is object of the verb *see*.

(d) The noun *boy's* denotes possession, the noun *boy* is object of the verb *heard*, the noun *boy* is subject of the verb *could*.

3. Ask the pupils to tell what is true of the words *he*, *I*, *we*, and *boy*; then the words *neighbour's* and *boy's*; then *me*, *us*, and *boy*.

IV. The pupils will now select the nouns and pronouns from a list of sentences and tell whether each (a) is subject of a verb, (b) expresses possession, or (c) is object of a verb or of a preposition.

Underline the selected words with chalk of three colours, or tabulate as follows:

Nouns and Pronouns

Used as subject of a verb	Used to express possession	Used as object of a verb or of a preposition

Ask the pupils to tell what is true of all the words in each list.

V. Tell the class that words used like those in the first list are said to be in the nominative case; like those of the second list in the possessive case; like those of the third list in the objective case. Write the names in the respective columns.

VI. In answer to suitable questions, the pupils now state the facts discovered in the lesson.

VII. For application, the pupils tell the case of each noun and pronoun in the following paragraph:

I have quite forgotten what became of the king's nephews. But when the wicked Medea saw this new turn of affairs, she hurried out of the room, and going to her private room, lost no time in setting her enchantments at work. In a few moments she heard a great noise of hissing snakes outside of the chamber window. Medea stayed only long enough to take her son with her, and to steal the crown jewels, together with the king's best robes.

—Hawthorne: *Tanglewood Tales*

In a later lesson on *case* the following sentences and other suitable ones may be used.

1. A man told me that another man's bicycle had been damaged by my car; although I did not know the first man, nevertheless I believed him.
2. When we found the boys, we chased them, and then they chased us.

The pupils select the nouns and pronouns in the sentences, tell the case of each, and give the reason for their answer.

Tabulate the forms on the black-board after the following model:

	<i>Singular</i>		<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
Nom.	man	Nom.	I	we
Poss.	man's			
Obj.	man	Obj.	me	us

In this way the pupils are led to see the different forms which the noun and the pronoun have. From such sentences a complete declension of the various pronouns may be built up by the pupils themselves.

Now tell them that each of the various *forms* of nouns and pronouns used in the three different relations is sometimes called a *case-form* or *case* of that noun or pronoun; for example, the word *I* is called the nominative case, the word *me* the objective case, the word *man's* the possessive case, etc.

"As about 72 per cent of all the pronouns used are personal pronouns*, a great deal of practice in the use of the various case-forms of these pronouns is essential." Probably the best type of exercise for this practice is the sentence-completion type, which is illustrated below.

Supply the proper form of the pronoun in each of the following sentences, with reasons:

*Stormzand & O'Shea, *How Much English Grammar?*

I. I, me

1. Jean is taller than ———
2. Will is going with Tom and ———
3. They believe that it is ———
4. Between you and ———, the thing is wrong.
5. Yes, Jack and ——— were both invited.
6. All are going but you and ———.
7. Father will see May and ——— at the fair.
8. If you were ———, would you stay longer.

II. we, us

1. You play tennis more than ———
2. ——— boys are going skating.
3. My brother came later than ———
4. The best of ——— girls will be chosen.
5. They knew their lessons as well as ———.
6. It was ——— whom they met.
7. You and ——— are to go to-night.
8. Every one was present except ———.

INFLECTIONS OF THE VERB

TENSE

The commonest inflection of the verb is that for tense. In preparing the pupils for the study of this inflection, the teacher should remind them that everything which takes place does so now, in the Present, or it has already taken place in the Past, or it will take place in the Future. Forms of the verb which denote or indicate present time and others which denote past time may then be placed before the pupil, and the facts of tense may be developed from these in the usual way. As the study of tense involves a study of the future, the pupils should be led to observe that the future tense is a verb phrase and not an inflected form.

PERSON, NUMBER, AND "AGREEMENT" OF VERBS

The Latin verb has six distinct forms for each tense; for example, the present and perfect tenses of *video* are as follows:

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
1st person	<i>video</i>	<i>videmus</i>	<i>vidi</i>	<i>vidimus</i>
2nd "	<i>vides</i>	<i>videtis</i>	<i>vidisti</i>	<i>viditis</i>
3rd "	<i>videt</i>	<i>vident</i>	<i>vidit</i>	<i>viderunt</i>

Here the teacher will see that a certain form of the verb is used according as the verb is of the first, second, or third person, singular or plural. Hence, the Latin verb is said to "agree with its subject in number and person."

The English verb forms corresponding with these are:

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
I see	We see	I saw	We saw
You see (Thou seest)	You see	You saw	You saw
He sees	They see	He saw	They saw

The only variation in form occurs in the third person singular, present, *sees*, and in the literary form of the second person singular, present, *seest*, which is rarely used. Although this single variation in form occurs in the regular English verb, it is still commonly said of the English verb that it "agrees with its subject in number and person." Nevertheless it is true of all verbs except *to be* and a few defective verbs (a) that in the third person singular of the present indicative, the ending *s* (obsolete *eth*) is always used;

(b) that in all other cases there is no variation in the form of the principal verb for person and number.

SPECIAL CASES INVOLVING SINGULAR AND PLURAL FORMS OF THE VERB

Some difficulty may arise in dealing with the verb when used with certain subjects. For example, both of the following forms are correct:

A thousand years have passed.

A thousand years is a small part of eternity.

The teacher should use such sentences as the following to lead the pupils to observe that the verb of the third person is singular or plural in form according as the subject is singular or plural *in meaning*.

1. Mathematics is an interesting study.
2. Three quarters of this work is satisfactory.
3. The committee was discharged.
4. The committee were eating their dinner.
5. The jury were unanimous regarding his innocence.
6. The jury was locked up for two hours.
7. Jack and his brother were going.
8. She and I are ready.
9. Bread and water was prison fare at one time.
10. Neither the boy nor his sister was late.
11. Each boy and girl is to be invited.
12. Every horse and cow is to be sold.
13. Neither the boy nor his sisters were ready.
14. Neither of the books is mine.
15. Why doesn't he hurry?

Let the pupils write the following sentences, filling the blanks in each case with the correct form of the verb *to be*:

1. One of the boys ——— missing.
2. The majority of the girls ——— in favour of going.

3. Neither of my brothers ——— ready.
4. Bread and butter ——— my only food for a week.
5. A number of the players ——— on the ice now.
6. *Gulliver's Travels* ——— an interesting book.
7. The rest of the books ——— lying on my desk.
8. The rest of your money ——— in the drawer.
9. Six miles ——— a long walk.
10. Jack's majority over his opponent ——— a large one.
11. The majority of the people ——— visitors.
12. Two weeks ——— a short time for a holiday.
13. One of you ——— doing well.

Let the pupils insert the proper form (*doesn't* or *don't*) in the blanks, and give the reason for their selection in each case:

1. He ——— write to us often.
2. On what days ——— Mary get home for dinner?
3. It ——— seem right to do so.
4. They ——— know their lessons.
5. Why ——— he come to help me?
6. It ——— make any difference to us.
7. My brother ——— like fishing.

MOOD

*"Of all finite verbs only .7 of one per cent. are subjunctives and 1.3 per cent. imperative."

The inflections for mood in verbs are so slight that in many cases it is scarcely possible to say which mood the speaker is using. The changes in form in the simple tenses are confined, in all verbs except *to be*, to the third singular, which takes the suffix *s* in the indicative, but does not in the subjunctive. The subjunctive verb-phrase, however, still retains an important place in our language, and for this and other reasons a familiarity with the various moods and their significance is desirable.

*Stormzand and O'Shea, *How Much English Grammar?*

The following outline may be used in the first lesson on this topic:

I. To prepare the class for the lesson, use such a sentence as the following:

1. We found the boat at the place where the river runs fast.

By questioning recall the facts that the verb *found* is inflected for tense, and the verb *runs* is inflected for person and number. Thus the inflections of the verb taught previously are quickly reviewed.

II. Now ask the pupils to read sentences 2 and 3.

2. Tom says, "John saves his money."
3. Will says, "If John save his money he will prosper."
4. The man protects his son from harm.
5. Heaven protect them in their peril!
6. You are late to-day.
7. Hurry lest you be late.

The pupils are led to see that the verb *saves* is inflected. By questioning, they learn that both forms, *saves* and *save*, are of the present tense, third person, singular number. Thus they see that the difference in form is not due to any inflection yet taken up by them. Why are the two verbs different in form then? As no one can answer the question, the teacher proceeds to help the pupils to discover the reason.

III. 1. By explanation and questioning, lead the pupils to see the difference between the ways in which the statements are presented by the speakers.

When we look at various statements, we see that they may be made in different ways. For example, some statements are made as statements of facts, some are made as statements of mere thoughts, some in other ways.

Look at sentence 2. Here we see that Tom makes a statement about John saving his money. In what way is Tom's statement made? (Tom's statement is made as a statement of a fact.)

Ask the same question of several pupils. Write the answer on the black-board.

Now read sentence 3. Here Will's statement about John saving his money is not made as a fact. In what way is it made? (Will's statement about the saving is represented as a mere thought.) What is the difference between the ways in which Tom's statement and Will's are made? (Answer as above.)

2. In a similar way, develop the following facts:

In sentence 4 the assertion made by the verb *protects* is made as of a fact, while in sentence 5, the assertion is made as of a mere thought. In sentence 6 the statement of your being late is made as of a fact, while in sentence 7 the statement of your being late is made as something merely thought of.

Ask the pupils in what respect the verbs *saves*, *protects*, and *are*, are similar, then the verbs *save*, *protect*, and *be*.

IV. Ask the pupils to select the verbs and verb-phrases in these sentences and tell whether they assert something as a fact or as a mere thought; arrange the verbs in two lists on the black-board as they are classified by the pupils:

1. These boys are busy.
2. If the boys were busy, you would help them.
3. We saw the moon when the sky was clear.
4. This boy studies his lessons sometimes.
5. Though the boy study hard now, he will not succeed.
6. God save the king!

7. This boy declared that the earth was flat.

8. We wish that he were going with us.

The pupils will tell in what respect the verbs (a) of the first list, (b) of the second list, are alike.

V. Tell the pupils that when the assertion is made as a fact, the verb is said to be in the indicative mood; when the assertion is presented as a mere thought, the verb is said to be in the subjunctive mood.

VI. Now ask the pupils to state in answer to suitable questions the facts discovered in the lesson.

VII. Ask the pupils to select the verbs in a certain list of sentences, and tell the mood of each verb, giving the reason in each case.

In a later lesson review the facts taught above, and, when the pupils are able to distinguish the two moods readily, teach the imperative mood. Then give them further practice in distinguishing the various moods through suitable exercises. In connection with the latter teach incidentally the facts:

1. That the verb used in asking a question is in the indicative mood.

2. That the future tense of the verb is always in the indicative mood.

When the pupils are ready for it, use such a list of sentences as the following, to show the absence of inflectional endings in the present subjunctive:

1. Take care lest I see it too soon.

2. Take care lest you see it too soon.

3. Take care lest he see it too soon.

1. Take care lest we see it too soon.

2. Take care lest you see it too soon.

3. Take care lest they see it too soon.

Use a similar group of sentences to show the past subjunctive of the verb. Paradigms for the indicative and the subjunctive may be built up side by side on the black-board. Special reference should be made to the present and the past subjunctive of the verb *to be*.

CHAPTER VIII

VERB PHRASES

AUXILIARY AND PRINCIPAL VERBS

IN order that the pupils may understand verb phrases, they must first be able to distinguish between auxiliary and principal verbs.

I. The lesson may be based on such sentences as the following:

1. The boy speaks loudly.
2. The boy has spoken well.
3. The driver lost his basket.
4. The driver will lose his basket.

Have a pupil read sentence 1 and select the bare predicate, which should be underlined at once. Deal similarly with sentence 2.

II. What else do we call these bare predicates? (They are called verbs.) Why do they differ in form? Let us study them in order to learn what the difference is.

- [1. The boys have some apples.
2. The boys have taken their books.

When the pupils select the bare predicates in these sentences, they see that the verb *have* occurs in both.

Their problem, then, is to learn the difference between these two uses of the verb *have* and other verbs similarly used.]

III. In sentence 1, what action is expressed? (The action of speaking) What word expresses this idea? (The verb *speaks*)

Instead of this we may say, The verb *speaks* expresses a definite meaning of its own. Write this statement on the black-board.

In sentence 2 what action is asserted? (The action of speaking)

What word expresses this idea? (The verb *spoken*)

How then are the verbs *speaks* and *spoken* alike in function? (Both express a definite meaning.)

Read sentence 2 omitting *has*. What meaning has it?

What is necessary to help *spoken* to make a statement? (The verb *has*) Underline the verb *has* with coloured chalk.

What does the verb *has* do in the sentence? (It helps the verb *spoken* in making a statement, or, It helps the verb *spoken* to form a verb phrase.)

What is the function of the verb *spoken* in this verb phrase? Of the verb *has*?

What is the difference in function between the verbs *has* and *spoken* in sentence 2?

How are the verbs *speaks* in sentence 1 and *spoken* in sentence 2 alike in function?

By a similar series of questions develop the corresponding facts regarding the verbs *lost*, *lose*, and *will* in sentences 3 and 4 in Section I. Have the pupils tell how the verbs *have* and *will* are alike in function, etc.

IV. Let the pupils select from the following sentences (a) the helping verbs, (b) the verbs expressing a definite meaning of their own:

1. The ploughman drove his team too fast.
2. The ploughman was driving his team too fast.
3. The boys returned home to-day.
4. The dogs were running to the house.

5. Jack does study hard every day.
6. Tom does his chores well.
7. The tree has fallen already.

Tabulate the verbs on the black-board as follows:

<i>Verbs which merely help other verbs</i>	<i>Verbs which express a definite meaning</i>
1.	drove
2. was	driving
3.	returned
4. were	returning
5. does	study
6.	does
7. has	fallen

If time does not permit the above tabulation, underline the helping verbs with coloured chalk.

V. What is true of all the verbs in the second column? (They express a definite meaning.)

All verbs like these are called *principal* verbs.

What is true of the verbs in the first column? (They merely help principal verbs to form a verb phrase.)

All verbs used in this way are called *auxiliary* verbs. The names are written on the board, and reference may be made to the significance of the names. Or reference may first be made to the function of the two classes of verbs, and the pupils may be allowed to suggest suitable names.

VI. Pupils are now asked questions which lead them to tell in their own words the facts learned.

The attention of the pupils should be drawn to the facts (a) that the auxiliary verb is found only in a verb

phrase, (b) that the order in the verb phrase is auxiliary verb+principal verb.

VII. 1. Let the pupils word the exercise found in the text-book.

2. Let the pupils classify the verbs in the following paragraph, giving the reason in each case:

We found out, in the course of the evening, that Lady Glenmire was going to pay Mrs. Jamieson a long visit, as she had given up her apartments in Edinburgh, and had no ties to take her back there in a hurry. On the whole, we were rather glad to hear this, for she had made a pleasant impression upon us; and it was also very comfortable to find, from things which dropped out in the course of the conversation, that in addition to many other genteel qualities, she was far removed from the 'vulgarity of wealth'.

—Gaskell, *Cranford*

In another lesson on this topic, review by means of examples the facts taught in the first lesson. Emphasize again the facts that an auxiliary verb is found only in a verb phrase as a helping verb, and that a principal verb always expresses a definite idea or meaning. Draw attention to the exception found in the copula verb *to be*, which is often used as a principal verb though it does not express a definite meaning. To show this, use examples like the following:

1. The boys are strong.
2. Mary was ready.
3. He is busy.
4. His brother has been ill for a week.

It will be noticed that in such sentences the complements, *strong*, *ready*, etc., give meaning to the predicate.

In later lessons on the classes of verb phrases, the use of the verbs *will*, *shall*, *may*, *might*, *should*, and *would* as principal verbs should be illustrated. In

connection with these lessons, too, the teacher may illustrate the use of the verbs *can*, *must*, and *ought*, which are also principal verbs.

THE USES OF SHALL AND WILL

Pupils in Form III become familiar with the future verb phrase and learn the use of the auxiliaries of the future—*shall* and *will*. The future verb phrase should now be reviewed briefly in the light of the pupils' new knowledge of auxiliary and principal verbs.

Then discuss with the pupils the function of the verbs *shall* and *will* in such sentences as the following:

1. I will meet you at six o'clock. (Promise)
2. I will do this, no matter what you say. (Determination)
3. They shall not leave without doing this. (Determination)
4. Thou shalt not steal. (Command)
5. Instead of the thorn shall come up the fir tree. (Prophecy)

It has been customary to regard *will meet*, *will do*, *shall leave*, *shalt steal*, *shall come* as promissive future verb phrases. But the verbs *shall* and *will* here express much of their original meaning, and are, therefore, principal verbs. It is better to discard the term 'promissive future verb phrase' and to treat *shall* and *will* as principal verbs whenever they express a definite meaning, as they do in the sentences above.

Additional practice in the proper use of *shall* and *will* may be given through the following exercises:

1. Write the following sentences, filling the blanks with *shall* or *will*. Give reasons.

1. I —— be twelve years old next month.
2. We —— help you whenever you ask us.
3. You —— see many new things at the fair.
4. The boys —— feel disappointed.
5. I believe that they —— do the work well.

6. If we do not hurry, we —— be late.
7. He —— not leave the house with my consent.
8. I am afraid we —— miss our train.
9. —— you lend me your book?
10. —— we take the pail with us?

2. Distinguish in meaning between:

1. We shall (will) go to-morrow.
2. The boy will (shall) not leave.
3. I shall (will) not hear you.
4. She will (shall) not do so.
5. You will (shall) have a decisive reply soon.

PROGRESSIVE AND PERFECT VERB PHRASES

I. Place the following sentences on the black-board:

1. Will is eating his dinner now.
2. Tom has eaten his dinner already.
3. We have seen the fox this morning.
4. My friend was driving his team slowly when it happened.
5. They had spoken before we arrived.

We have been studying verb phrases recently. What is the verb phrase in sentence 1? (*Is eating*) In sentence 2? (*Has eaten*)

II. What kinds of verb phrases are these? As no one knows, the teacher suggests the desirability of studying them.

III. 1. By questioning develop the following facts regarding these phrases:

- (a) The verb phrase, *is eating*, expresses action in progress, or action going on.
- (b) The verb phrase, *has eaten*, expresses action completed.

2. By similar questioning develop corresponding facts regarding the verb phrases, *have seen*, *was driving*, and *had spoken*.

3. Lead the pupils to tell how the verb phrases *is eating* and *was driving* are alike, and how *has eaten*, *have seen*, and *had spoken* are alike.

IV-VII. The other steps of the lesson will follow as usual in the developing lesson.

Many passages suitable for application exercises will be found in various books and magazines. Pupils should be given plenty of practice in identifying these classes of verb phrases before teaching the next class.

THE EMPHATIC VERB PHRASE

The teaching of the emphatic verb phrase does not present any difficulty. During the lesson attention should be drawn to the facts that the auxiliary is always some form of the verb *do*, and that the emphatic verb phrase is used only in the present and the past tenses.

After teaching this verb phrase, write side by side such sentences as the following, to lead pupils to see that the verb *do* is also used as an auxiliary in certain questions and negative statements to avoid abruptness, but that it does not here help to form an emphatic verb phrase:

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. Does he study French? | Studies he French? |
| 2. Do I look tired? | Look I tired? |
| 3. Do they need our help? | Need they our help? |
| 1. The horse did not eat the hay. | The horse ate not the hay. |
| 2. Mary does not skate. | Mary skates not. |
| 3. We do not like tomatoes. | We like not tomatoes. |

THE USES OF MAY, MIGHT, SHOULD, AND WOULD

Before teaching the subjunctive verb phrase, the pupils should be made familiar with the use of *may*, *might*, *should*, and *would* as principal verbs. Use such

sentences as the following for this purpose:

1. We *should* obey our parents. (Ought to)
2. They *should* do this work before leaving. (Ought to)
3. He *would* do it in spite of my protests. (Was determined to)
4. The boys *would* stay away for hours. (Were accustomed to)
5. You *may* leave at 4 o'clock. (Are permitted to)
6. I *may* go if I wish. (Am permitted to)
7. They said that we *might* go at seven. (Were permitted to)
8. The teacher replied that the girls *might* leave at recess. (Were permitted to)

The use of *should* and *would* as auxiliaries of a future verb phrase in a subordinate clause should also be taught. Use sentences similar to the following:

1. I shall not go to the concert.
2. I say that I shall not go to the concert.
3. I said that I should not go to the concert.
1. You believe that they will come.
2. You believed that they would come.
1. She thinks that we shall miss her.
2. She thought that we should miss her.
1. They say that he will do the work.
2. They said that he would do the work.

THE SUBJUNCTIVE VERB PHRASE

When the above uses of the words *may*, *might*, *should*, and *would* are understood, it will be comparatively easy for the pupils to understand the subjunctive verb phrase as a verb phrase used with the value of a simple verb in the subjunctive mood. Use such sentences as the following:

1. Hurry lest you *be* late.
2. Hurry lest you *should be* late.

A pupil reads sentence 1, and tells the mood of the verb *be*, giving the reason for his answer. This involves a review of the subjunctive mood. He then selects the verb phrase, *should be*, in sentence 2, which is used with the value of the simple subjunctive *be*.

Use other pairs of sentences like the following and have the pupils explain in each case the use of the italicized verb phrase:

1. We all desire that he *succeed*.
2. We all desire that he *may succeed*.
1. O that he *knew* this.
2. O that he *might know* this.
1. *Be* it ever so humble, there's no place like home.
2. If it *should be* ever so humble, there's no place like home.
1. If they *came* to-day, I could help them.
2. If they *should come* to-day, I could help them.
1. However ill she *be*, she shall have the best of care.
2. However ill she *may be*, she shall have the best of care.
1. It *were* impossible to do such a thing.
2. It *would be* impossible to do such a thing.

From the study of these examples the pupils conclude that verb phrases with auxiliaries *may*, *might*, *should*, or *would* are sometimes used in place of simple subjunctive verbs to assert something as a mere thought.

Give the pupils further practice by having them select the subjunctive verb phrase in each of the following sentences, and where possible name the simple verb in place of which it is used:

1. If he *should be* there, send him to me.
2. Take care lest you *should miss* them.
3. My desire was that he *might help* you.
4. Whoever he *may be*, we shall stop him.
5. Be careful lest you *should fall*.
6. It *would be* better that they *should find* it out.
7. Even though it *may be* torn, it is still useful.
8. May Heaven save them from such a fate!

THE PASSIVE VERB PHRASE

I. Use the following sentences:

1. A stranger broke the window.
2. Jack has broken the window.
3. A window was broken yesterday by Fred.
4. The dog ate the bone.
5. The bone was eaten by the dog.

Let the pupils in turn read sentences 1, 2, and 3, and name the bare predicates, which are then underlined.

II. Now in sentence 2 we have a verb, *has broken*. What kind of verb phrase is it? (A perfect verb phrase)

What is the verb phrase in sentence 3? (*Was broken*)

Broken What kind of verb phrase is it? (No one knows.)

Then let us find out what we can about it.

III. 1. In sentence 1 what action is asserted? (The action of breaking)

Ask the same question in reference to sentences 2 and 3, the answer also being the same.

In sentence 1, who performed the action? (A stranger) What might we call him then? (The doer, or the actor) Write the word *doer* on the black-board. *B. E.*

There was also something acted upon. What was it? (The window) Write the words *Something acted upon* on the black-board. *B. E.*

So we have suggested in sentence 1 an action, a doer, and something acted upon.

What part of the sentence stands for (denotes, represents) the doer of the action? (The subject *stranger*)

What does the subject *stranger* stand for? (It stands for the doer of the action.)

2. Ask the same questions in reference to the verb phrase, *has broken*, in sentence 2. Then ask how the verb *broke* and the verb phrase *has broken* are alike. (Each is a verb whose subject stands for the doer of the action.)

3. According to sentence 3 what was acted upon?
(A window)

What does the subject *window* stand for? (The subject stands for the thing that was acted upon.) Now write on the black-board—*Was broken is a verb phrase whose subject stands for the thing acted upon.*

What is the difference between the two verb phrases *has broken* and *was broken*? (Answer as above.)

4. The same two series of questions should now be asked in reference to the verb *ate* in sentence 4 and the verb phrase *was eaten* in sentence 5.

Then ask, How are the verbs *broke*, *has broken*, and *ate* alike? (Each is a verb whose subject stands for the doer of the action.)

What have you found out about the verb phrases *was broken* and *was eaten*? (Each of them is a verb phrase whose subject stands for the thing acted upon.)

How is the verb phrase *was eaten* different from the verb phrase *has broken*? (Answer as above.)

IV. From the following sentences ask the pupils to select the verbs and verb phrases, and tell in each case whether the verb is one whose subject stands for (a) the doer of the action, or (b) the person or thing acted upon.

Tabulate the answers on the black-board, label the verbs A or B, or use two different colours of chalk in underlining them.

1. The bird flapped its wings.
2. The pens were placed on the desk by us.
3. The painter has lost his brush.
4. His brother will buy a new house.
5. My shoes were brushed by the boy.
6. This map was drawn on the board by Mary.
7. Our chairs had been moved by them.

The pupils will tell what is true regarding each of these classes of verb phrases.

V. The names *active form of the verb* and *passive verb phrase* are now given.

VI. In reply to suitable questions, the pupils give the facts discovered by them in the lesson.

VII. For application a suitable exercise is found in the text-book.

In a second lesson on this topic, use such sentences as the following to review the facts taught in the first lesson:

1. The boys have lost the books that we gave them.
2. These books were torn by the kitten.

What action is asserted in sentence 1? (The action of losing)

What part of this sentence stands for the doers of the action? (The subject)

What may we say regarding the verb phrase *have lost*? (It is a verb phrase whose subject stands for the doers of the action.)

What do we call this form of the verb then? (The active form)

In sentence 2 what action is asserted? (The action of tearing)

What part of the sentence stands for the thing acted upon? (The subject) What may be said regarding the verb phrase *were torn*? (It is one whose subject stands for the thing acted upon.)

What is it called then? (A passive verb phrase)

Tell the pupils that when the subject of the verb stands for the doer of the action, the verb is said to be in the *active voice*; and when the subject stands for the person or thing acted upon, the verb is in the *passive voice*.

By the study of four or five examples, using verbs in the active voice, and having them changed to the passive voice, lead the pupils to discover the following facts:

1. That in changing from the active to the passive voice, the object of the active form becomes the subject of the passive.

2. That, therefore, only transitive verbs can be used in the passive voice.

The following exercises may be assigned to the pupils at proper intervals:

1. Select the passive verb phrases from a suitable paragraph in the Reader and tell why they are passive.

2. Rewrite each of the following sentences, changing the voice of the verb:

1. Jack found some plums.
2. The marbles were taken by the brother.
3. People were astonished by his actions.
4. The threshers had completed their work.
5. They were pounding their desks in approval.
6. The famous city had been destroyed by fire.
7. Have you eaten your apple?
8. The solos will be sung by Mary.

9. My sister is giving a party to-morrow.
10. The bell had been rung at the usual time.

3. Construct sentences using each of the following verbs in the active form; change each sentence into the passive form: *Buy, bring, understand, see, write, throw, praise, paint, carry, remove.*

A REVIEW LESSON ON VERB PHRASES

When the six classes of verb phrases have been taught, the pupils should be given a 'bird's-eye view' of verb phrases and their functions. The following sentences may be used for the lesson, and the facts recalled may be tabulated on the black-board as indicated here:

1. Our friends will visit us to-morrow.
2. The snow has melted quickly.
3. The birds were singing when I awoke.
4. We do study hard, though you may not think so.
5. If you should see our dog, tell us.
6. The meat was eaten by Fido.

<i>No. Verb phrase</i>	<i>Function</i>	<i>Kind</i>
1. will visit	denotes future time	future
2. has melted	denotes completed action	perfect
3. were singing	denotes action in progress	progressive
4. do study	is used to make an emphatic assertion	emphatic
5. should see	is used for a simple verb in the subjunctive mood	subjunctive
6. was eaten	is a verb phrase whose subject stands for the thing acted upon	passive

CHAPTER IX

HOW TO DEAL WITH ERRORS AND DIFFICULTIES

EVEN when the facts of grammar are taught very carefully, it is to be expected that pupils will sometimes make errors in the deductive exercises which follow the teaching of these facts. Numerous mistakes are made by the average pupil in these exercises, and many difficulties arise which he can scarcely solve without assistance. The skill of the teacher is shown just as much in the way in which he deals with these situations as in the way in which he develops the facts of a topic in the first place.

The teacher is reminded that many of these errors and difficulties on the part of the pupils may be avoided, if he takes pains early in the course to train the pupils to ask themselves questions when they are in doubt concerning any particular point in grammar. Those who are trained in this way will not guess at an answer and pass on, but will reason out the point about which they are in doubt, until they reach a logical solution of the difficulty.

In conducting lessons with a class the teacher should also bear in mind that the errors made by the pupils many be of two kinds, each of which calls for very different treatment.

In the first case, a pupil may fail to recall a name or a fact which was fully understood when first taught. For example, in dealing with the sentence,

The bird was pretty,

the pupil may know the function of the adjective *pretty*, but fail to recall the name *subjective completion*. In such a case the teacher should simply ask another pupil who does remember the name to tell the first one, who may then be asked again to give it.

But a more serious situation arises when a pupil fails to recognize the principle involved in a particular sentence, or when he does not recognize the function or relation of some part of a sentence under discussion, and, consequently, gives a wrong answer or none at all. Many inexperienced teachers simply say "No!" when an incorrect answer is received, and turn to another pupil, passing the question from one to another until the desired answer is received from one of the brighter pupils. Needless to say, *this is not teaching*, and such practice is to be strongly condemned.

Equally to be condemned is the practice of asking only those who know, for answers to the questions, thus compelling those who do not know to depend upon the answers given by the brighter pupils of the class. Those who cannot answer a question correctly may hear the answer given by another pupil, but it does not necessarily follow that they understand it. Such pupils are apt to become discouraged and to fall further behind from lesson to lesson.

As the teacher's aim in exercises of this kind should be *to help those who do not know*, the correct method is the developing method, in which *the teacher questions the pupil in such a way as to lead him to discover his mistakes and to make his own corrections*.

The following devices for assisting in such development may be used as occasion rises:

1. *Use simpler examples.* Frequently the pupil's difficulty is due, not to ignorance of the particular construction or the principle involved, but rather to inability to grasp it in the complicated form in which it sometimes appears. If a few questions are based on simpler examples involving the same principle, the pupil may be led to understand the more difficult construction. A number of situations are given here to illustrate the procedure.

(1) In the sentence:

Though the moon be hid, the night will not be dark,
a pupil calls the verb *be* an auxiliary verb.

The teacher may question as follows: Suppose that we say 'Though the moon be pale' what part of speech is the word *pale*? (A predicate adjective)

What kind of verb is the verb *be* in that case? (A principal verb)

When we say 'Though the moon be hid' what part of the sentence is the word *hid*? (A predicate adjective)

Then what kind of verb is the verb *be*? (A principal verb)

Now have the pupil contrast with the above the bare predicate in the sentence:

Though the moon *be hid* by a cloud, the night will not be dark.

(2) In the sentence:

He was judged by what he had done,
a pupil has difficulty in selecting the subordinate clause.

Suppose that our sentence read, 'He was judged by his deeds' what part of speech is the word *deeds*? (A noun)

What is its relation in the sentence? (It is the object of the preposition *by*.)

What group of words is used instead of *his deeds*? (What he had done)

What must this group of words be then? (A noun clause object of the preposition *by*)

(3) In the sentence:

This is the house in which we are living,
the pupil has difficulty with the phrase *in which*.

What words tell what house this is? (The words *in which we are living*)

What is this group of words? (An adjective clause modifying the noun *house*)

Analyse the sentence, We are living in this house.

Parse the phrase *in this house*. (It is an adverb phrase modifying the verb *are living*.)

Now analyse the adjective clause *in which we are living*. (Bare subject—*we*; bare predicate—*are living*; modifier of the bare predicate—*in which*)

What then is the group of words *in which*? (It is an adverb phrase modifying the verb *are living*.)

(4) In the sentence:

You may go if you wish,
a pupil calls the verb *may* an auxiliary of a subjunctive verb phrase.

What do we mean when we say, You *may* go? (You are permitted to go.)

Since the verb *may* here expresses the definite meaning of permission, what kind of verb must it be? (A principal verb)

(5) In the sentence:

Have you ever tried studying your lesson in the morning?
a pupil calls the word *studying* a participle. Change the sentence to read:

Have you ever tried this plan?

The pupil will see the parallel at once and conclude that the word *studying* must be like a noun, therefore an infinitive.

(6) A pupil does not know what form of the relative pronoun to use in the sentence,

He was a man —— I knew I could trust.

In the sentence, I can trust him, what is the relation of the word *him*? (It is object of the word *trust*.)

What then must be used as object of *trust* in the given sentence? (The word *whom*)

(7) In the sentence:

Do not pay attention to what they say,

a pupil fails to see the relation of the word *what*, because he does not recognize the noun clause *what they say*. Change the sentence to read thus:

Do not pay attention to their words.

Thus the pupil sees that *words* is a noun object of the preposition *to*, and that *what they say* is a noun clause in the same relation. Have the clause analysed. The relation of the word *what* is seen at once.

2. *Fill in an ellipsis.* In many sentences the thought is not fully expressed in words. For example, we say:

1. He is taller than I,

when we mean,

2. He is taller than I am tall.

The part omitted in sentence 1 is called an ellipsis.

Sometimes a pupil has difficulty in understanding the function or relation of a certain part of an elliptical sentence, but this difficulty disappears at once if he is led by the teacher's questions to fill in the ellipsis, as in the above sentence.

In the sentence:

Do you know the way he did it?

if a pupil calls the part of the sentence after *know* a noun clause, lead him to discover his error by supplying the words *in which* after the word *way*.

3. *Have the pupils change the order of the words.* Frequently, especially in poetry, the order of the words is not the usual order in the sentence, for example:

Hadst thou been here, my brother had not died.

In such a case the teacher should ask the pupil to name the subject, and have him read the sentence, putting the subject first, when the difficulty disappears at once.

My brother would not have died if thou hadst been here.

The following examples may be dealt with similarly:

1. Thrice is he armed who hath his quarrel just.

2. He who hath his quarrel just is thrice armed.

1. How sweet and gracious even in common speech
Is that fine sense which men call courtesy.

2. That fine sense which men call courtesy is how sweet and
gracious even in common speech.

1. Know from the bounteous heaven all riches flow,
And what man gives the gods by man bestow.

2. Know that all riches flow from the bounteous heaven and
that the gods bestow by man what man gives.

4. *Examine the functions of the word:*

The tall boy's hat is lost.

Note the relation of *boy's* to *hat*, and its double value; also the relation of *tall* to *boy's*.

Which value of *boy's* can it modify?

He came last week.

Note the double value of *week*; also the relation of *last*.

Which value of *week* can *last* modify?

THE CORRECTION OF SENTENCES

Teachers are often called upon to help pupils to correct errors in language made by themselves or by others. The following examples will suggest the form of procedure in such cases:

1. Between you and I he doesn't remember what he done with it.

1. Read silently the first phrase, omitting the words *you and*.

What is the relation of the other pronoun in this phrase? (Object of the preposition *Between*) What form of the pronoun must be used then? (*Me*)

Why do you use *me* instead of *I*? (It is object of the preposition.)

2. In the last clause what time is referred to? (Past time)

What is the past tense of the verb *do*? (Did)

Besides this, when the word *done* is used in a verb phrase, what must always be used with it? (A helper; or an auxiliary verb)

But there is no helper used here. Now read the whole sentence correctly.

2. *Us three will water them flowers to-day.*

1. What is the subject of the verb *will water*?
(The words *Us three*)

What form of the pronoun must be used in the nominative case? (*We*)

Why should we say *we three*? (Because the pronoun is subject of the verb.)

2. What part of speech is the word *them*? (A pronoun)

What part of speech should be used to modify the noun *flowers*? (An adjective)

What is the adjective which is used to point out? (Those)

Why do we use *those* instead of *them*? (We must use an adjective, not a pronoun, to modify the noun *flowers*.)

3. *If he had went a little slower, it would have been better for him.*

1. What are the principal parts of the verb in the first clause? (*Go, went, gone*)

Which of these parts must be used with the helper *had* to form the perfect verb phrase? (The past participle *gone*)

2. What is the positive form of the word *slower*? (Slow)

What is the adverb derived from the adjective *slow*? (Slowly)

What is the comparative degree of the adverb *slowly*? (More slowly)

Why do we say *more slowly* instead of *slower*? (We must use an adverb to modify the verb *had gone*.)

4. I won't be to school next week, I don't think.

1. What auxiliary is used with the subject *I* to help form a future verb phrase? (The auxiliary *shall*)

In this sentence the speaker wishes to express futurity. What should he say instead of *I won't be*? (*I shall not be.*)

Why do we use *shall* in place of *will* here? (The speaker wishes to express simple futurity.)

2. We say, I am *at* school, I am *at* the lake.

What preposition should be used with, I shall be, to denote place? (The preposition *at*)

3. The speaker wants to tell us that he thinks a certain thing. How should he begin his sentence then? (*I think.*)

Now read the sentence in its right form. (*I think I shall not be at school next week.*)

5. Neither of the girls were satisfied with their share of the money.

1. What is the subject of the verb *were satisfied*? (The pronoun *Neither*)

What number is the pronoun *Neither*? (Singular)

Then what form of the verb must be used with this singular subject? (The singular form, *was satisfied*)

2. What is the singular form of the possessive adjective *their* which agrees with *Neither* and *girls*? (*Her*)

Now read the sentence in correct form. (*Neither of the girls was satisfied with her share of the money.*)

Why are these changes in verb and adjective made? (The verb and adjective should agree with the singular subject *Neither*.)

If the teacher makes systematic use of these and other similar methods of dealing with the pupils' errors and difficulties, he will find that the grammar lesson period will be a time of marked interest and of definite progress even to the slowest member of his class.

CHAPTER X

FORM V. AND THE CONTINUATION SCHOOL

THE work in grammar for those who have passed beyond the elementary school course includes the following:

1. A careful review of the main parts of the elementary course.

2. The study of more complicated sentences involving the principles taught in the elementary course.

3. The study of new constructions not taken in the elementary course, such as the nominative absolute, the indirect object, and many others.

4. The study of the history of the language.

The methods used in the elementary school course should be continued with the more advanced classes. In taking the pupils over the "main parts of the elementary course," it is not to be assumed that they have already such a clear understanding of the work that it is only necessary to give some additional practice in applying the principles through deductive exercises. This would be a serious error on the part of the teacher. In connection with all but the simpler topics, the facts, or principles should be developed again in accordance with the procedure outlined in Chapter II of this Manual, with this possible exception, that in some cases Step IV may be omitted.

Several factors will prevent these lessons from being a mere repetition of those which the pupils had in the elementary course: The topics will probably be taken in a different order; in teaching the lessons, the teacher will use sentences of his own selection; the facts will be

organized into larger groups than in Junior classes; the personality of a new teacher will make the lesson different. Thus each lesson should come to the pupils with considerable freshness.

Furthermore, if the pupils already have some knowledge of the principle being taught in any lesson, it will be possible to teach the topic in a shorter time. Thus more than one topic may frequently be taught in a single lesson period. It is suggested, for example, that in a lesson on the uses of the objective case a brief review of the use of the noun or pronoun as object of the verb or the preposition should be followed in the same lesson period by the teaching of the objective in apposition, and possibly the direct and indirect object. In other lessons teach separately the adverbial objective and the objective predicate uses of the noun. After the working of suitable application exercises following these lessons, conduct a review lesson in which all the uses of the objective case are illustrated and summarized on the black-board.

No set rule can be laid down as to the amount to be included in single lessons, as classes and individual pupils vary much in ability and previous training. In deciding how much to take up in a given lesson, the teacher must be guided by the capacities of the particular pupils of his class.

The exercises given in Section V of the *Ontario Public School Composition and Grammar* and in the *Ontario High School English Grammar*, supplemented by others drawn from various sources by the teacher, will provide ample scope for the application of the principles learned in this course.

Suggestions for the teaching of a few of the more difficult ones among the new topics of the course are to be found in the following pages.

THE NOMINATIVE ABSOLUTE CASE

I. Use the following sentences on the black-board:

1. They broke the window with their ball.
2. They being anxious, I went to the house at once.
3. The boys having come, we sat down to dinner.
4. Bruce lay down again, his heart heavy with sorrow.

Read sentence 1. In what case is the pronoun *They*?
(In the nominative case)

Upon what word does this pronoun depend for its case? (Upon the verb *broke*)

Likewise develop the facts that the noun *window* depends upon the verb *broke* and the noun *ball* upon the preposition *with*.

We see then that each of the nouns and pronouns in this sentence depends upon a verb or a preposition for its case.

II. Now read sentence 2. What is the first nominative case form in this sentence? (The pronoun *They*)

This pronoun is not used in the same way as the pronoun *They* in sentence 1.

Let us find out how this nominative case form is used.

III. 1. By questioning lead the pupils to see:

- (a) That the word *They* is modified by the participial phrase *being anxious*.
- (b) That the pronoun *I* is subject of the verb *went*, while the noun *house* is object of the preposition *to*.

We have found that the other nouns and pronouns in sentences 1 and 2 depend upon some verb or preposition for their case. How does the pronoun *They* in sentence 2 differ from the other nouns and pronouns? (It does not depend upon any other word for its case, or, It is not subject of any other word.)

Emphasize this fact by having it repeated and by writing it on the black-board.

2. In a similar way develop the facts that the nouns, *boys* and *heart*, in sentences 3 and 4 do not depend upon any other word for their case.

IV. The pupils now select from such sentences as the following other words which have the same characteristics as those discussed above:

1. The rain having ceased, we ventured out again.
2. They could not do the work, I being absent.
3. The rest must perish, their great leader slain.
4. The fire being out, the house grew cold.
5. She having gone, the others began to study again.

Underline the nouns and pronouns as selected. Let the pupils tell in what respect all the words discussed are alike.

V. Tell the pupils that a noun or a pronoun that does not depend upon any other word for its case is said to be used absolutely. Ask them to name the case form of the pronouns used absolutely in the above sentences. Tell them that in English any noun or pronoun used absolutely is in the nominative case, and that it is said to be in the nominative absolute case.

VI.-VII. These steps follow in the usual way.

NOMINATIVE ABSOLUTE CONSTRUCTION

Let the pupils again read the sentence:

They being anxious, I went to the house at once.

Question to enable them to discover:

1. That the phrase *They being anxious* is composed of a noun in the nominative absolute case modified by a participial phrase.

2. That this phrase tells why I went to the house and has the same meaning and function as the adverbial clause *because they were anxious*.

3. That the phrase modifies *went*.

Deal with as many other examples as necessary to lead the pupils to understand of what any absolute phrase is composed and how it is used in the sentence.

Tell the pupils that this phrase is called a nominative absolute construction, and that such absolute constructions are found in all languages.

When the pupils have had some practice in recognizing and explaining the nominative absolute cases and the nominative absolute construction, use such examples as the following, to lead them to distinguish clearly between the nominative absolute and the noun or pronoun modified by a participle but used as subject or object of a verb:

1. He having finished the work, we were not obliged to remain.
2. Having finished the work, he went away at once.
3. He, having finished the work, went away at once.
1. The man standing close to the gate, we could not pass through.
2. We saw the man standing close to the gate.
1. The snow falling slowly, we were able to proceed satisfactorily.

2. The snow, falling slowly, did not interfere with our progress.
3. Falling slowly, the snow did not interfere with our progress.

THE ADVERBIAL OBJECTIVE

I. Sentences similar to the following should be ready on the black-board:

1. My father arrived yesterday.
2. This book is quite thick.
3. Our friends came much earlier than we did.
4. A week has seven days.
5. My father arrived last week.
6. This book is three inches thick.
7. Our friends came hours earlier than we did.

Use sentences 1, 2, 3, to review the fact that an adverb modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

Use sentence 4 to recall the noun, the transitive verb, and the object.

II. Using sentence 5, lead the pupils to see that the verb *arrived* is intransitive, and that the word *week* is a noun. Thus lead them to the problem—to discover the use of the word *week* in this sentence.

III. In sentence 5 what words tell when my father arrived? (The words *last week*)

With the function of what part of speech is the noun *week* (with its modifier *last*) here used? (An adverb)

How is the noun *week* used in this sentence? (The noun *week* is used with the function of an adverb modifying the verb *arrived*.)

In a similar manner develop the facts that the noun *inches* in sentence 6 and the noun *hours* in sentence 7 fulfil the function of adverbs by modifying the adjective *thick* and the adverb *earlier* respectively.

Now ask, In what respect are these nouns—*week*, *inches*, and *hours* alike? (Each fulfils the function of an adverb.)

IV. Let the pupils select from the following sentences the nouns which fulfil the function of adverbs and tell in what way they have adverbial function:

1. The girl is five feet tall.
2. We saw his chum this week.
3. Tom is two years older than Will.
4. Our friends lived in this city years ago.
5. The boys walked five miles.
6. We crossed a river a mile wide.

Ask in what respect the selected nouns are like each other and like those of the first group.

V. Tell the pupils that, in inflected languages, nouns used in this way are usually found in what corresponds to our objective case, and that we call them *adverbial objectives*.

VI. Ask such questions as the following until the pupils can answer readily:

What have you found out about the adverbial objective?

Why is the word—in this sentence called an adverbial objective?

Of what two parts of speech has the adverbial objective the function? Etc.

VII. Suitable application exercises should now be assigned.

THE OBJECTIVE PREDICATE

I. Use the following sentences:

1. The boys made this box.
2. The Israelites made Saul their king.

3. We considered the man a good musician.
4. Canadians think Canada a fine country.
5. We believe him a gentleman.
6. The boys elected Tom secretary.

Ask the pupils to read sentence 1 and give the relation of the noun *box*; namely, object of the verb *made*. They will read sentence 2 and name the object. (The noun *Saul*)

II. Who can tell how the noun *king* is used? (No one can explain correctly.) Let us find out how this word and others like it are used.

III.-IV. 1. If we read sentence 2, leaving out the word *king*, we see at once that such a statement is not complete. While we say, The boys made this box, we do not say, The Israelites made Saul.

What word is used with the verb *made* to tell what the Israelites did to Saul? (The noun *king*)

We may write the sentence in these ways:

The Israelites *made-king* Saul.

The Israelites *crowned* Saul.

What word is used to help the verb *made* in making the assertion? (The word *king*)

How is the noun *king* used? (It is used to help the verb *made* to make the assertion.)

2. Who is described as king in this sentence? (*Saul*)

What part of this sentence does the noun *king* modify? (It modifies the object *Saul*.)

What is the second part of the function of the word *king*? (It modifies the object *Saul*.)

What two things does the word *king* do? (Answer as above.)

3. By a similar series of questions, develop the corresponding facts regarding the function of the words *musician*, *country*, *gentleman*, *secretary*, in sentences 3, 4, 5, and 6.

Now ask, In what respects are all these words alike in function? (Each of them helps the verb to make the assertion and modifies the object.)

V.-VII. Give the name *objective predicate noun*; have the pupils explain the function of the objective predicate noun; then have them work such exercises as the following:

1. Select the objective predicate nouns in the following sentences and explain their function:

1. Queen Victoria made Tennyson a baron.
2. We consider this boy a promising student.
3. Madame de Stael called architecture frozen music.
4. The girls chose Mary captain.
5. They thought the man a teamster.
6. Cromwell made Milton Secretary of State.
7. They called the baby Bobby.

2. Fill the blanks in these sentences with objective predicate nouns:

1. Let us appoint him _____.
2. We called the boy _____.
3. The people made Gladstone _____.
4. I consider Jack a _____.
5. The Romans elected Caesar _____.
6. The man calls himself a _____.
7. If I did that, I should consider myself _____.

In another lesson use sentences to teach the fact that an adjective is sometimes used with the same function, and is then called the objective predicate adjective. In connection with this topic, lead the pupils to distinguish various uses of the adjective in the predicate by means of such sentences as the following:

1. The man is *reliable*. (Predicate adjective)
2. We found a *reliable* man. (Adherent adjective)
3. We found the man *reliable*. (Objective predicate adjective)
1. The well is *dry*. (Predicate adjective)
2. We found a *dry* well. (Adherent adjective)
3. We cannot pump the well *dry*. (Objective predicate adjective)

THE USES OF THE GERUNDIAL INFINITIVE

After learning the infinitive as a word which has the nature of both a noun and a verb, it is sometimes difficult for pupils to understand the use of the gerundial infinitive as an adjective or an adverb. This topic should not be taken up until they have had considerable practice in identifying infinitives and explaining their use in the sentence.

Prepare the class for the study of this topic by using such sentences as the following:

1. My friend likes to play the violin.
2. To read good books in the evening is delightful.

By questioning, lead the pupils to tell that in sentence 1 *to play* is a gerundial infinitive; because of its noun nature it is used as object of the verb *likes*; because of its verb nature it is completed by the object *violin*.

Develop the corresponding facts regarding the gerundial infinitive *to read* in sentence 2.

It is easy for us to see that these words are infinitives. But there are certain other uses of the gerundial infinitive that are not so easily understood. Let us study these to-day.

Now turn to the following sentences:

1. Our friend, the mayor, is ill to-day.
2. The boy is a good musician.

3. Books to read in the evening are plentiful.
4. I have a coat to wear in the garden.
5. The time to play ball comes early in the evening.
6. Houses to rent by the year are scarce.
7. They thought out a plan to end the trouble.

Develop the following facts:

1. In sentence 1 the noun *mayor* is in apposition with the noun *friend*; it modifies the noun *friend*.

In sentence 2 the noun *musician* is a predicate noun; it modifies the noun *boy*.

The pupils are thus reminded that sometimes nouns modify other nouns, and that such nouns are to this extent adjectives.

2. Develop the facts that in sentence 3 the word *to read* is a gerundial infinitive; that it modifies the noun *books*; that it is, therefore, used as an adjective.

Develop the corresponding facts regarding the words *to wear*, *to play*, etc. in the remaining sentences.

From the study of these examples the pupils conclude that the gerundial infinitive is sometimes used with the function of an adjective.

Now turn to the following sentences:

1. Our friends came last month.
2. The procession was a mile long.
3. Our friends came to give us this message.
4. Tom was ready to do the work.
5. The girls ran to catch the train.
6. We were willing to pay the money at once.
7. I shall go to please you.

1. Develop the facts that in sentence 1 the noun *month* fulfils the function of an adverb by modifying the verb *came*; while in sentence 2 the noun *mile* modifies the adjective *long*. The pupils are thus reminded that nouns sometimes fulfil the function of adverbs.

2. Develop the facts that in sentence 3 the word *to give* is a gerundial infinitive; that it modifies the verb *came* by telling why our friends came; that it does the work of an adverb.

Develop the corresponding facts regarding the words *to do*, *to catch*, *to pay*, and *to please*, in the remaining sentences.

From the study of these examples the pupils are led to see that the gerundial infinitive is often used with the function of an adverb.

The pupils should now be asked to work suitable application exercises.

THE EXPLETIVE

I. Use such sentences as these:

1. My brother lives there.
2. There are several books on the table.
3. There will be some apples left for you.
4. We left the book there.
5. There came a stranger to my door.
6. There dwelt the last of the family until his death.

In sentence 1 develop the fact that the word *there* is an adverb of place modifying the verb *lives*.

II. Read sentence 2. We find the word *There* used in this sentence also. Let us find out the use of the word in this sentence.

III. In sentence 1, since *there* is an adverb, the meaning of *there* is *in that place*.

In sentence 2 what is said about the books?

Omit *There* and make the statement in sentence 2.

Compare as to meaning sentence 2 with the statement without *There*.

What is the meaning of *There* in sentence 2? It has no meaning. Since it has no meaning, it cannot modify another word.

To find out its use read the sentence in its order, omitting *There*.

How does it sound? (Unfinished, odd, rough, abrupt)

Where is the subject? (After the verb)

Where is the subject in sentence 1, and in nearly all sentences?

What fills the place of the subject in sentence 2?

Notice how smooth the sentence sounds when *There* is used.

What is the meaning and the use of *There* in sentence 2? (It has no meaning, and it is used to fill the gap left by the subject which is placed after the verb.)

Now develop the corresponding facts regarding the uses of the word *there* in the remaining sentences.

In what respect is the function of the word *there* in sentences 1, 4, and 6 the same? (In each case it is an adverb of place.)

In what respect is the function of the word *There* the same in sentences 2, 3, 5? (In each sentence it simply fills up the gap left before the verb, etc.)

IV. If it is considered necessary, have a developing exercise.

V. Give the name *expletive* which is applied to the word *there* when used in this way. At the same time explain the significance of the name.

VI. Let the pupils tell the function of the expletive.

VII. Let the pupils explain the use of the word *There* in the following sentences:

1. There came a voice from heaven.
2. We saw them there soon after we arrived.
3. There are thirty birds sitting there.
4. There seemed to be no end to the complaints.
5. There was an old man named X.
6. There ended the struggle.
7. There is no evidence to show that the Indians had lived there.

CHAPTER XI

GENERAL EXERCISES

THE following tables and exercises are intended to provide material for topical reviews and for additional deductive exercises on the various topics dealt with in the course. No attempt is made to provide all the material required for the full course; these exercises will supplement those found in the text-book and will suggest others which the teacher may make up for himself or secure from various sources. The outlines at the head of each section are intended merely to recall the various topics exemplified in the exercises following. They are not to be regarded as furnishing an adequate presentation of these topics, nor should they under any circumstances be memorized by the pupils.

THE SENTENCE

CLASSES OF SENTENCE

<i>According to their form</i>	<i>According to their composition</i>
1. Declarative	1. Simple
2. Interrogative	2. Complex
3. Imperative	3. Compound
4. Exclamatory	4. Compound-Complex

EXERCISE I

1. Tell which of the following groups of words are sentences.

2. Make sentences of the other groups by adding the necessary words:

1. We saw three kittens in the garden.
2. The young squirrel in the tree
3. Boys playing in the yard
4. By the river
5. I found these marbles in my pocket.
6. The apples on this tree are ripe.
7. The pigeons on the barn
8. Jack gave his sister some apples.
9. The old dog lying in the sun
10. Plenty of potatoes for dinner

EXERCISE II

Classify the following sentences:

1. According to form
2. According to composition
 1. Mr. Bourne, have you any castles in Spain?
 2. The heavy brigade in advance is drawn up in two lines.
 3. Show me the house in which you live.
 4. Rebecca lost no time in causing the patient to be removed.
 5. Have you e'er heard of gallant like young Lochinvar?
 6. I should like to describe what followed, but I can hardly do so.
 7. Open the door quickly, and place the basket on the table.
 8. *How fading are the joys we dote upon!*
 9. What is the thing that has changed these beds of dead plants into hard coal?

EXERCISE III

Classify the following sentences as simple, complex, or compound:

1. When the evening came on, Miss Matty implored the chairmen not to run away.
2. After they had promised, I saw her tighten her features.
3. She gave me a melancholy shake of the head through the glass.
4. We got there safely at last, but Miss

Matty was sadly jolted on the way. 5. Miss Forrester, who knew that we were coming through dangers to see her, had made extra preparations for us. 6. The usual forms of genteel ignorance were followed until an interesting conversation about robbers began. 7. I saw Miss Matty nerving herself for a confession, and at last out it came. —Gaskell, *Cranford* (adapted)

1. Many men lost their property at that time.
2. She must weep or she will die.
3. We must make hay while the sun shines.
4. They toil not, neither do they spin.
5. People who live in glass houses should not throw stones.
6. We know that he helped the man who called to see him.
7. They came early, but we did not see them.

EXERCISE IV

Make each of the following sentences complex by inserting a subordinate clause in the blank:

1. We saw the man ———.
2. Shall I bring you the cup ———?
3. An old cat and a dog ——— were walking together.
4. You are taller ———.
5. We shall go to school ———.
6. The girls ran quickly ———.
7. The people ——— had lost their way.
8. He ——— shall reap sparingly.
9. We could not go ———.
10. Those ——— may leave at recess.

EXERCISE V

Make each of the following sentences complex by changing the italicized words or phrases into subordinate clauses:

1. They would not tell us *their age*.
2. Tom will come to see us *in the spring*.
3. *After dinner* we set out for the camp.
4. *Before their arrival* we feared for *their safety*.
5. The boy *standing at the door* does not see us.

6. He saves *his earnings*.
7. The fool thinks *himself wise*.
8. Cowards die many times *before their death*.
9. We shall go to the woods *after school*.
10. We could not go *on account of the rain*.
11. They had told us *of their alarm*.
12. Miss Matty smiled *in spite of her tears*.
13. *On leaving the house*, I met Jack and Tom.
14. A day or two *after his arrival*, the shop was closed.
15. The books *left on the desk* are mine.
16. *Dinner being ready*, we sat down at once.

EXERCISE VI

Combine the sentences in each of the following groups so as to make a complex sentence:

1. One of the stories was about a girl. This story haunted me for a long time afterwards.
2. The family were away in London. A pedlar asked to leave his heavy sack in the kitchen.
3. The girl, roaming about in search of amusement, saw a gun hanging in the hall. She took it down to look at it.
4. Lady Glenmire told us the news. Mrs. Jamieson's house had really been attacked.
5. Mrs. Jamieson had been awakened by Lady Glenmire. They had rung the bell. The bell communicated with a room on the third floor.
6. She packed herself up warmly on the sofa. Here she was found by the housemaid. The housemaid came into the room at six o'clock.
7. Miss Pole heard of this. She nodded her head in great satisfaction.
8. We were all sorry for Carlo, the old familiar friend. He had snapped at us for so many years.
9. Miss Pole considered herself a heroine. She had taken decided steps in flying from the two men.

EXERCISE VII

Change each of the following sentences to a simple sentence.

1. Mr. Hoggins had been attacked at his own door by two ruffians, who were concealed in the shadow of the porch.
2. When the evening came, Miss Matty implored the chairman not to run away.
3. In the afternoon we called on our friends and told them of our adventure.
4. Before we left, we heard of another exciting adventure.
5. We cannot see the face of the man who is holding the light.
6. The little maiden who staggered under the tray had to tell about the ghost.
7. A smothered voice was heard and it came from the inside of the chair.
8. When we came back we had to do some chores.
9. Miss Matty believed that the customer was reliable.
10. As we sat at our work, we saw a car speeding toward us.

EXERCISE VIII

Change each of the following sentences to a complex sentence:

1. Lady Glenmire went to bed, but she kept awake all night.
2. Miss Pole heard of this and she nodded her head in great satisfaction.
3. The next morning I met Miss Pole and Lady Glenmire setting out on a long walk to find an old woman famous for her knitting.
4. The horses were going down hill, and they could not stop.
5. It rained on Thursday, so we could not play our game.
6. The leaves are falling, therefore the swallows will soon be flying south.
7. The teacher was absent, and they were unwilling to open the box.
8. We offered them the money, but they would not take it.
9. He had not finished his work, and I could not wait for him.

THE PARTS OF THE SENTENCE

*The parts of the
sentence*

*Composition of the parts of
the sentence*

Bare subject

Modifiers of the bare subject 1. Words

Bare predicate

Modifiers of the bare predicate 2. Clauses { Principal
Subordinate

Object or subjective completion

Modifiers of the object or 3. Phrases
subjective completion

EXERCISE I

1. Analyse the following sentences.
2. Classify the modifiers as words, subordinate clauses, or phrases:

1. The boy who lives beside us watches all these operations with great interest.
2. The hill is dangerously steep.
3. Amid these careless warders glided the puny form of a little old Turk.
4. The king applied his lips to the wound.
5. In dry weather the streams are feeble.
6. The pupils sent him some beautiful flowers when he was ill.
7. The earth is nearly round.
8. I never saw that dog in my garden.
9. Bring me a drink from the well, if you are not too tired.
10. The tongue of his friend is full of wisdom.

EXERCISE II

1. Analyse each of the following sentences.
2. Select the subordinate clauses and the phrases and tell what they modify:

1. The traveller walked faster when he reached the edge of the village.
2. On a pleasant summer afternoon the children of the neighbourhood had assembled in a little opening in the forest.
3. Behind this window hangs the beautiful curtain which mother brought from Switzerland.
4. When we arrived at the inn, the servant who had helped me before took us to our room.
5. The favourite pastime of the people who live on that part of the coast is swimming in the surf.
6. The information which we had received from these stragglers was unreliable.

EXERCISE III

Rewrite each of these sentences, inserting a single word as modifier in place of each italicized phrase:

1. The boy *at the head* spelled every word correctly.
2. A man *with a kind heart* took the injured dog home.
3. He walked quickly *toward his home*.
4. Your brother is a man *of great ability*.
5. We had never bought a shawl *made in Turkey*.
6. The boys did their work *in a hurry*.
7. The stranger worked *with great willingness*.

EXERCISE IV

Rewrite each of these sentences, using a phrase as modifier in place of each italicized word:

1. *Norwegian* butter was sold freely.
2. Sister's doll is *headless*.
3. The *city* boy shouted loudly.
4. He walked *proudly* homeward.
5. A *June* thunderstorm is rare.
6. Mary has a *golden-haired* dolly.
7. *Japanese* handkerchiefs are sold here.

EXERCISE V

In the following sentences tell whether the italicized words are objects, subjective completions, or modifiers of the verb:

1. The lightning struck the *tree*.
2. Lot's wife looked *back*.
3. The brother became a *blacksmith*.
4. The boys came *yesterday*.

5. *To-day* I shall write a *letter*. 6. The hunter hurt his *back*.
 7. To-morrow will be *Saturday*. 8. The bears were fighting *here*.
 9. Jack will make a good *farmer*. 10. The cherries looked *ripe*.
 11. The bears were fighting a large *dog*. 12. We looked *quickly* to
 see the falling star. 13. The horse ran *away*. 14. Jack will make
 a *box* for us. 15. The fireman was a *hero*. 16. *Soon* my brother
 will build a *house*. 17. The boy turned his *hand slowly*. 18. The
 soldier turned *traitor*. 19. Tom wrote a *letter*; he writes *well*.

EXERCISE VI

Fill the blanks in these sentences with appropriate modifiers:

1. This ——— house was built ———. 2. Many ——— pres-
 ents were given ———. 3. The ——— boys left their ——— coats
 on the ——— steps. 4. Yesterday ——— ——— swallows were
 sitting ———. 5. Do you ever see the ——— man who lives
 ———? 6. Speak ——— and ———. 7. Place your ——— boots
 ———.

THE PARTS OF SPEECH

1. Principal parts of speech	{	Noun
		Pronoun
2. Modifying parts of speech	{	Verb
		Adjective
		Adverb
3. Connecting parts of speech	{	Preposition
		Conjunction

SPECIAL CLASSES OF WORDS

1. The Interjection
2. The Expletive
3. The Particle

EXERCISE I

Tell the part of speech of each word in these sentences:

1. They wheel about and fly back faster than they came.
2. A man with a red coat rode by.
3. The Roman general was the first man who spoke.
4. A convoy from Bougainville came during the night.
5. A merchant who had taken me into his friendship invited me for dinner.
6. When I lived in India, I spent one hot season in the hills.

SUBORDINATE CLAUSES

1. The noun clause, as,
We know that the story is true.
2. The adjective clause, as,
These are the books which you sent me.
3. The adverb clause, as,
We came when you called us.

EXERCISE I

Classify the subordinate clauses in the following sentences, and give their relation:

1. When the preliminary prayer was over, the minister arose, and, having turned the hour-glass which stood by the great Bible, he commenced his discourse.
2. When all was in readiness, I descended from my chamber to take leave of the old clergyman and his family, who had been so kind to me.
3. As they observed the various figures that made up the assemblage, they concluded that an odder society had never met.
4. As she gazed, an unmirthful smile spread over her features, like sunshine that grows melancholy in some desolate spot.
5. When the village had eaten its poor supper, it did not creep to bed, as it usually did, but came out of doors again and remained there.

EXERCISE II

Select the noun clauses in the following sentences, and tell how they are used:

1. We do not know what you have in your pocket. 2. The boys said that they were too busy. 3. You cannot tell us why you remained so late. 4. How they got away is a mystery. 5. That he was very ill seemed evident. 6. When they will arrive here is not known. 7. I cannot believe that they did such a thing.

EXERCISE III

Using the following noun clauses as subjects, fill the blanks with suitable predicates to make sentences:

1. Why the train is late ———. 2. What they told us ———.
3. That our team will win ———. 4. How we escaped ———.
5. Why they want this book ———. 6. That you have made a mistake ———. 7. Where you have left your book ———.

EXERCISE IV

Fill the blanks in the following sentences with suitable noun clauses, and give their relation:

1. We cannot find out ———. 2. Our friends had hoped ———.
3. Tom believes ———. 4. My desire is ———. 5. When did you hear ———? 6. A stranger told us ———. 7. They asked me ———. 8. The scouts reported ———. 9. We discovered ———. 10. Mary does not know ———. 11. We shall not tell you ———. 12. Did you think ———? 13. Will you show me ———? 14. All the people declared ———. 15. We have not yet discovered ———.

KINDS OF PHRASES

- | | |
|---------------------------|---|
| 1. The noun phrase | <i>Over the fence</i> is out. |
| 2. The pronoun phrase | They praised <i>each other</i> . |
| 3. The verb phrase | He <i>has seen</i> them. |
| 4. The adjective phrase | The book <i>on the desk</i> is mine. |
| 5. The adverb phrase | Tom went <i>to the gate</i> . |
| 6. The preposition phrase | They left <i>because of</i> the noise. |
| 7. The conjunction phrase | He sent <i>in order that</i> we might know. |

EXERCISE I

Classify the phrases in the following sentences:

1. Beams of light were streaming through the window. 2. They threw their arms around each other. 3. He passed out of the room by way of the window. 4. Men of honour do not suspect one another. 5. She was sought by many suitors on account of her many virtues.

EXERCISE II

Substitute phrases for the italicized words in the following sentences, and tell the kind of each:

1. They are *wealthy* men. 2. She walked *sorrowfully* from the room. 3. John did it *thoughtlessly*. 4. I waited *there* until noon. 5. The general was a *courageous* man. 6. *Canadian* winters are sometimes severe. 7. She left the room *hastily*. 8. He could not go *through* sickness. 9. The sun *sinks* behind the hills. 10. They sailed by the *moon's* light. 11. They *passed* slowly *from* the room. 12. Obey the *law's* commands.

EXERCISE III

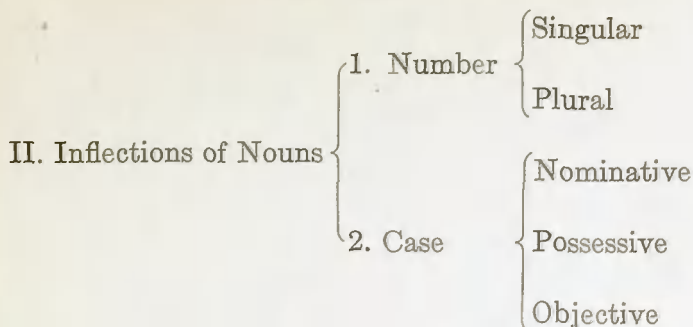
Classify the phrases and the subordinate clauses in the following sentences:

1. She springs to the stroke as she did at the start; and Miller's face, which had darkened for a few seconds, lightens up again. 2. As the boy led her by the hand, Dorothy almost imagined that she saw the delightfulness of the home he was so soon to reach. 3. When we doubt whether we are young any more it is good to spend an hour or two with children. 4. While the party were looking at the flower, it continued to shrivel until it became quite dry. 5. When they were ordered to enter the hall, they thought that the soldiers were joking.

THE NOUN

I. Classes of Nouns

{	Common nouns
	Proper nouns
	Collective nouns
	Masculine gender-nouns
	Feminine gender-nouns
	Neuter nouns



- | | | |
|-------------------------------|---|---|
| III. Uses of the Cases | { | (1) Nominative: |
| | | (a) Subject of a verb |
| | | (b) Predicate nominative |
| | | (c) Nominative in apposition |
| | | (d) Nominative of address |
| | | (2) Possessive: |
| | | (a) To modify a noun. I have <i>John's</i> book. |
| | | (b) Without a noun. <i>Mary's</i> is next to <i>Kate's</i> |
| | | (c) In apposition. This is my cousin <i>John's</i> house. (<i>John's</i> , of course, modifies house.) |
| | | (3) Objective: |
| | | (a) Object of a verb |
| | | (b) Object of a preposition |
| (c) Indirect object of a verb | | |
| (d) Object in apposition. | | |

EXERCISE I

1. Classify the nouns in these sentences as proper or common:

2. Select and classify the gender-nouns:

1. The knight changed horse and spear. 2. The Jewess having retired, the attention of the people was transferred to the Black

Knight. 3. Cedric, the Saxon, was summoned to the court of Richard. 4. The lady was informed by her handmaid that a damsel desired admission. 5. Tom lighted the candle, and found the captain's letter and Peter's, too. 6. The letter summoned the father to come to Liverpool at once if he wished to see his boy. 7. The rector took up his pen, and rubbed up his Latin once more, to correspond with his daughter.

EXERCISE II

Write the following sentences, changing the gender of each gender-noun and making any other changes necessary:

1. Pauline was now the daughter-in-law of her mistress, and a countess. 2. The abbess would not deliver up the unhappy man to his jealous wife. 3. The sultan was inferior to his brother. 4. The prince was an ungrateful master, a rebellious son, and an unnatural brother. 5. He bought a ewe, a goose, and a drake. 6. The boy's aunt is a widow. 7. The friar saw a lad near the giant.

EXERCISE III

Give the plural form of each of the following nouns:

Ally, arch, army, bandit, banjo, body, chasm, chimney, chorus, commander-in-chief, court-yard, cross, cupful, deacon, elf, echo, father-in-law, formula, forget-me-not, German, half, hero, hoof, husbandman, index, journey, lash, loaf, man-servant, Mr., mouse, mouthful, mystery, Norman, oath, penny, phenomenon, pony, radish, sash, sheaf, shelf, step-son, terminus, tomato, valley, vertex, vertebra, volcano, woman, yeoman.

EXERCISE IV

Give two plural forms for each of the following, and use them in sentences:

Bandit, brother, cherub, cloth, cow, die, fish, index, memorandum, Miss Smith, penny, seraph, staff.

EXERCISE V

Write the possessive forms, singular and plural, of the following nouns:

Beau, child, company, dish, eagle, foot, fox, German, goose, lady, loaf, man-servant, mother-in-law, prince, princess, tooth, wolf, wife, woman, yeoman.

EXERCISE VI

Write the possessive form of each of the following:

The King of England, The Historical Society, Mary and Jane, the Mayor of Toronto, the secretary and treasurer, The Johnson Co., King George, James, Dickens, father-in-law, Henry Eighth.

EXERCISE VII

Distinguish the various uses of the nominative case in the following sentences:

1. James, the postman, gave me a letter. 2. Mary, close the window. 3. George was crowned king. 4. There are giants in the land. 5. Jane, is that little boy your brother? 6. The stranger, whose name was Antoine, was a sea-captain. 7. The young man seemed the leader of the company. 8. "This is no fair chance, proud prince," said the yeoman.

EXERCISE VIII

Explain the case relation of each noun in the following sentences:

1. He was a messenger from the king, her father. 2. When Duncan the Meek was king of Scotland, there lived a great thane or lord, Macbeth. 3. The knight's matters must be settled before the squire's. 4. Were I ever to become monarch of England, I would hang such transgressors. 5. Sometimes a member of the family had to set out for a supply of fire from a neighbour's. 6. Round earth's wild coasts our batteries speak, our highway is the main. 7. When the king's sons had vacated the throne,

2. State the number and the case of each pronoun:

1. I saw him yesterday.
2. What is your wish, that makes you send for me?
3. From these she learned where they had gone.
4. If that were he, I am sure that he would have spoken to us.
5. Nothing will revive the courage of those who fell behind.
6. Who would refuse what I have granted them?
7. Some of these that are left belong to her.

EXERCISE II

Rewrite the following sentences changing the number of each noun and pronoun and making other necessary changes:

1. She hears the echo of my brother's solo.
2. The child gave his sheaf to the ox.
3. We saw the baby's tooth first.
4. He sold me a calf and a turkey.
5. The lady says that a thief has taken a loaf from the shelf of her pantry.

EXERCISE III

Fill the blanks in the following sentences with the proper form: 1. *I* or *me*,

2. *We* or *us*, and give the reason for your choice:

1. He is taller than ———.
2. Will you go with Tom and ———?
3. Mary and ——— are going.
4. She is as old as ———.
5. They asked you and ——— to stay.
6. This car belongs to Jack and ———.
7. It was ——— who said so.
8. The girls are waiting for Bess and ———.
9. Who wants this book?——.

EXERCISE IV

Insert in each blank the proper form of the pronoun:

1. *He* or *him*,

2. *She* or *her*, and give the reason for your choice.

1. We saw Will and ——— on the street.
2. My father is busier than ———.
3. James and ——— were walking together.
4. Few of the boys play as well as ———.
5. The difference between you and ——— is this.
6. I thought it was ———.
7. Whom can I trust, if not ———?

EXERCISE V

Fill the blanks in the following sentences with *they* or *them*, giving reasons for your choice:

1. People like —— should not go there.
2. It was —— whom we met.
3. —— that honour me, I will honour.
4. The book is for you or ——.
5. You have done as well as ——.
6. I believe it is —— who are to blame.
7. What were you and —— doing?

EXERCISE VI

Supply the proper form, *who* or *whom*, in the following sentence, with reasons:

1. —— are you expecting?
2. We did not see —— he had taken with him.
3. This is the lady ——, I believe, telephoned to me.
4. —— do you suppose she is?
5. Will you tell me —— is to help you.
6. This is the lady —— I believe I saw yesterday.
7. I do not know —— I should help.
8. —— do you think it was that called?

EXERCISE VII

In the following sentences insert suitable relative pronouns in the blanks.

1. People —— live in glass houses should not throw stones.
2. This is the rabbit —— I bought at the market.
3. Do you know the man —— we met.
4. Jack, —— stood meanwhile at the gate, was getting anxious for me.
5. The crow dropped the cheese, —— the fox then ate.
6. Why should we ask Mary, —— has never been here before?
7. My dog, —— was a handsome one, had cost me three hundred dollars.
8. You may have any book —— you want.
9. I do not like the kitty —— killed the bird.

THE VERB

I. Classes of Verbs	{	Complete verbs	Intransitive
		Incomplete verbs	{ Transitive Linking
		Auxiliary verbs	
		Principal verbs	
		Verbs of the new conjugation	
II. Inflections of Verbs	{	Person	{ First Second Third
		Number	{ Singular Plural
III. Classes of Verb Phrases	{	Tense	{ Present Past Future
		Mood	{ Indicative Subjunctive Imperative
IV. Verbals with Double Function	{	Future Perfect Progressive Emphatic Subjunctive Passive	
	{	Infinitive	{ Root Gerundial Gerund
		Participle	{ Present Past

EXERCISE I

Classify the verbs in the following sentences as transitive, intransitive, or linking:

1. 1. The men overtook them at the gate. 2. He led her to the door. 3. They separated at the door. 4. I am busy again. 5. Ill news flies fast. 6. The boy lost his kite. 7. The world is too large. 8. Are you all ready? 9. Exchange books with John. 10. She was a clever woman.

2. 1. They seemed happier than before. 2. The pearl shone like a star. 3. The peasant set a pole in the sand. 4. The gnats play in the warm sun. 5. They bound it with cords. 6. Seek the beautiful fairy. 7. The light appears brighter. 8. She took off her cap and threw it down. 9. See how they avail themselves of every cover which a tree or bush affords, and shun exposing themselves.

EXERCISE II

Give the principal parts of the following verbs, and tell to which conjugation each belongs:

Bear, behold, bind, blow, buy, catch, drink, drive, duck, feel, find, fling, forsake, go, grow, hear, hold, hound, hurt, know, lay, lie, lose, meet, rise, sell, shoot, shrink, sink, sleep, steal, tear, throw, wear, weep, wind.

EXERCISE III

Classify the verb phrases in the following sentences, and tell which is the principal verb in each case:

1. They were keeping their court in great pomp. 2. He was found by his faithful servant. 3. Why hath he shown himself here? 4. Be ready in case he should return. 5. Now we shall drive into the country. 6. "I do not believe it," he replied. 7. They are led by a noble knight. 8. She said that they would soon return. 9. Don't cry; you shall go to-morrow. 10. He was interrupted by his physician. 11. He had been awakened by the noise. 12. She began to hope that her daughter would recover. 13. It is being repaired to-day. 14. He asked how soon it would be done.

EXERCISE IV

Compose sentences using each of the following verbs:

1. As an auxiliary verb
2. As a principal verb

Has, is, will, may, do, are, have, shall.

EXERCISE V

Compose sentences using each of the following verb forms correctly:

Lie, rise, lay, laying, saw, raised, risen, sit, seen, laid, set, rose, done.

EXERCISE VI

Explain the uses of *shall*, *will*, *should*, and *would*, in the following sentences:

1. A few words will explain it.
2. They said that his property would descend to his niece.
3. I will punish him if he loiters here.
4. If thou speakest false, thou shalt hang upon the next tree.
5. Were I as thou, I should find myself plenty.
6. I feared I should miss them in the crowd.
7. Should he return, send me word.
8. A friend should bear his friend's infirmities.
9. Will you leave it until morning, or shall I take it now?
10. Your wife would give you little thanks, if she were present.
11. Most willingly shall it be done.
12. The men would not tell where it was.

EXERCISE VII

Insert the proper word, *shall* or *will*, in each blank in the following sentences:

1. We — go to school on Monday.
2. You — be late if you do not hurry.
3. I — help you whenever you need help.
4. I fear that he — be late.
5. It is probable that we — be there by that time.
6. — we see you at the fair?

7. If I do not hurry, I —— miss my train. 8. —— you lend me your book? 9. —— you be able to come? 10. I think we —— have plenty of time.

EXERCISE VIII

Rewrite each of these sentences, changing the verb:

1. To a future verb phrase
2. To a perfect verb phrase
3. To a progressive verb phrase

1. Tom writes to his mother. 2. The boys eat their supper in silence. 3. We see the captain frequently. 4. I lie on the grass to rest. 5. The boy drives the cows down the lane. 6. The water in the pond freezes every night. 7. Molly does her work well.

EXERCISE IX

In the following exercise change the passive verb forms to active, and the active verb forms to passive:

1. The letter confirmed his suspicions. 2. Their horses were saddled in great haste. 3. Have you seen him to-day? 4. The next pupil gave the same answer. 5. His mother sent him to wash his hands. 6. I am bound by my vow to do so. 7. They are bringing the goods to land. 8. He will not be changed from his purpose by threats. 9. The men had been disturbed by the same sounds. 10. The cottage was surrounded by a large orchard. 11. The boys will know me in this coat. 12. His friends must have told him about the accident. 13. The boys do not hear the bell. 14. These foolish reports were believed by the inhabitants. 15. He had been awakened from his slumber by the noise of the battle.

EXERCISE X

State the person, number, tense, and mood of each verb and verb phrase in the following sentences:

1. She is as dear to them as if she were their own child. 2. A knight was seen as he crossed the court. 3. Heaven be praised!

4. I have climbed high, but my reward is small. 5. Bring me word how it has sped with thee. 6. I will lose my life ere a hair of his head be injured. 7. Were he ten times thy friend, I should oppose him. 8. Take care that thy time be not idly spent. 9. Make no friendship with an angry man lest thou learn his ways. 10. If he have the gift of showing me my road, I shall not grumble with him that he desired to make it pleasant. 11. Sweet be thy matin o'er moorland and lea!

EXERCISE XI

Classify the infinitives in the following sentences and give their relation:

1. We have no time to listen to them. 2. The few men that they were able to muster were not sufficient to defend the walls. 3. The faithful dog began to jump upon him to express his sympathy. 4. Upon hearing the sound of feet approaching, the watch decided to give an alarm. 5. He came to tell us that the ship was ready to sail at once. 6. After recovering his feet he made his escape by jumping over a high wall. 7. The miller began to lose his temper at hearing the laughter of his companions.

EXERCISE XII

Classify the participles in the following sentences and explain their function:

1. A ship coming from China crossed him on the way. 2. A wind laden with moisture was blowing steadily from the east. 3. Still talking to himself, he walked slowly through the wood, followed by the swineherd. 4. The sailors, seeing no chance of saving the ship, took to the boats. 5. I found mother entertaining visitors who had arrived for dinner. 6. I am returning the book so kindly loaned by you. 7. The note inclosed in this letter was written by a child.

EXERCISE XIII

In the following sentences give the grammatical value and relation of each word in "ing.":

1. The crossing is very muddy. 2. The boy crossing the street took it. 3. Crossing the street in the dark was very dangerous. 4. I bought her a singing bird. 5. The bird singing in the cage is a canary. 6. This writing is very bad. 7. He is writing his essay. 8. He made the opening larger. 9. Opening the door, he ran out. 10. They escaped by opening the window. 11. The painting has been sold. 12. He made his living by painting pictures. 13. In the morning, I began carrying the water from a neighbouring well. 14. During the evening we were looking at books containing very interesting pictures.

THE ADJECTIVE

I. CLASSES

1. Descriptive adjectives
2. Limiting adjectives
 - (a) Numeral adjective (Cardinal, Ordinal)
 - (b) Articles
 - (c) Pronominal adjectives

II. FORMS OF THE DESCRIPTIVE ADJECTIVE

1. Positive degree form
2. Comparative degree form
3. Superlative degree form

III. METHODS OF COMPARING DESCRIPTIVE ADJECTIVES

1. Regular (by means of endings)
2. Phrasal
3. Irregular

IV. WORDS PARTLY ADJECTIVAL

1. Participles
2. Pronominal adjectives

EXERCISE I

Classify the adjectives in the following:

1. Little spiders spun it. 2. Several persons were visible. 3. Beautiful but shadowy images would sometimes be seen. 4. Every man was uneasy. 5. The fifth boy has two pencils. 6. Which girl owns this book? 7. New covers were put on each week. 8. The third person was an old soldier. 9. Every winter she wore a dress of yellow satin. 10. What queer animal is this? 11. Will future ages believe that such stupid people ever existed? 12. Deep prolonged notes, from a hundred masculine voices, arose to the vaulted roof. 13. For what reason did they send such large packages?

EXERCISE II

Give the grammatical relation of each adjective in the following sentences:

1. The day was very hot. 2. Large vines hung from the trees. 3. The air became colder toward evening. 4. This constant worry maddens me. 5. The vapour-charged air, heated by the warm earth, becomes lighter, and rises. 6. A pine forest covered these beautiful hills. 7. The boy seemed anxious to help himself.

EXERCISE III

Give the degree of comparison of each adjective in the following sentences, and state the relation of each:

1. This is more serious than that. 2. They are dear innocent children. 3. He wore an aspect of most profound gravity. 4. How easy it was! 5. She knew him to be the most ambitious boy in the class. 6. The good servant said that zealous duty to a dear master had brought him there. 7. They are not so trusty as they are valiant. 8. The foam breaks in long lines upon a broad expanse of darkness. 9. These were strange old times when fantastic dreams were realized. 10. The youngest son, being a rich man, was well able to pay the ransom. 11. Few men are less selfish. 12. It was as wild there as in the deepest wood.

EXERCISE IV

Give the other degrees of comparison of the following adjectives:

Able, better, blue, common, difficult, farthest, hardy, less, light, lovely, most remarkable, safer, splendid, severe, steady, uglier, uncommon, witty.

EXERCISE V

Compose sentences using the comparative and the superlative forms of each of the following adjectives:

Long, beautiful, sunny, much, pleasing, bad, patient, many, little, indifferent, steady.

EXERCISE VI

In the following sentences point out the adjective phrases and clauses, and give their relation:

1. This is the shop to which the recollections of my boyhood give a peculiar magic. 2. The king of France and the duke of Burgundy were now called in to hear the decision of the king about his daughter. 3. The road by which Banquo was to pass to the palace was beset by murderers who killed him. 4. The ghost of Banquo, whom he had caused to be murdered, placed himself on the chair which Macbeth was to occupy. 5. This river, which has along its banks every diversity of hill and vale, is called by the wild tribes who dwell along its glorious shores the Saskatchewan. 6. There is not one man in the town where he lives that he has not sued. 7. Rules are of less value than experiments.

EXERCISE VII

Point out any words or phrases in the following sentences which are partly adjectival in function, and state what other function they possess:

1. Following the river backwards, we find it joined by tributaries. 2. None of my captains has any report to make. 3. The jack is a basket made of old pail-hoops, and fastened to an upright

stick. 4. You have no reason to fear me. 5. Having delivered their message, he had no desire to remain longer. 6. John failed in his attempt to reach them.

EXERCISE VIII

Fill the blanks in the following sentences with the proper form, *this*, *that*, *these*, or *those*:

1. Do you ever eat ——— sort of potatoes? 2. I shall not buy any of ——— kind of apples. 3. ——— sort of goods was once sold quite easily. 4. ——— house across the street is for sale. 5. ——— species of flower will not be found here. 6. We should help ——— kind of men.

EXERCISE IX

Insert a truthfully descriptive adjective in the blank in each of the following:

1. Mary has a ——— dress. 2. She is a very ——— girl. 3. We had a ——— time at the picnic. 4. That little girl is a ——— talker. 5. This lady always wears a ——— hat. 6. My brother had a ——— headache.

THE ADVERB

CLASSES OF ADVERBS

DEGREES OF COMPARISON

Adverbs of time

Positive

Adverbs of place

Comparative

Adverbs of cause

Superlative

Adverbs of manner

Adverbs of degree

Potential or modal adverbs

Conjunctive adverbs

EXERCISE I

Classify the adverbs in the following sentences, and state what each modifies:

1. Her disposition was naturally mild. 2. He immediately went up to them. 3. Do not remain there too long. 4. When did you see them last? 5. How slowly they move forward! 6. They went out before you came in. 7. Why did you speak so unkindly? 8. The elephant stopped immediately. 9. The largest egg still lies there. 10. He certainly acted foolishly. 11. I once knew it quite well. 12. We shall go when you call us.

EXERCISE II

Explain the adverbial function of the italicized words and state what other grammatical function is performed by each:

1. He waited there several *hours*. 2. I have vainly striven to reach it. 3. He stole to the room *where* Duncan lay. 4. I often see her *when* she comes into the garden. 5. They feared that he would not be able to *refuse* the invitation. 6. Be ready to go *when* I return. 7. It is not difficult to see *how* all this will end. 8. He was resolved to *prove* this, *therefore* he questioned them further. 9. They came an *hour* before the rest.

EXERCISE III

Select the adverbial phrases and clauses in the following sentences, and state what each modifies:

1. When he got home, a sad spectacle offered itself to his eyes. 2. He turned to the right that we might pass. 3. The Duke has never had a quiet moment since they joined him. 4. As he had now dry wings he flew a considerable distance. 5. While he slept, he dreamed a dream which made him resolve to go to Ephesus. 6. He had no sooner left the apartment than the prince summoned an attendant. 7. If you have the courage, we will mount so high that they can't catch us. 8. John remained where he was, but the rest ran out of the yard. 9. Though both were hardened villains, the sight of the captive maiden at first appeared to stagger them. 10. If there was no vapour in the air, the heat would rush back so rapidly that the ground would become frozen even on a summer's night. 11. When the cloud first forms, its quantity is far greater than the air is able to maintain in an invisible state. 12. As the

wind passes through the clouds, it makes them very full of water; if it chills them, it makes the water-dust draw more closely together; if it brings a new load of water-dust, the air is fuller than it was before. 13. Though this is called by many a rash adventure, I deny that the undertaking upon which we are entering is in any sense a new one.

EXERCISE IV

Give the value and relation of all the adverbial elements in the following sentences:

1. Her views were rather peculiar, and not always comprehended. 2. One morning he did not arrive quite in time for the train. 3. He was glad to meet the Baron one day when he dined with the Prince. 4. He married a lady with whom he lived very happily. 5. He was detained at London by his business six months. 6. Finding that he would be obliged to stay longer, he sent for his wife. 7. When she was alone with the ladies, she was not so talkative as had been expected.

EXERCISE V

Give the other degree forms of the following adverbs:

Loudly, badly, better, brightly, sleepily, early, swiftly, plainly, far, fastest, ill, least, sweetly, highly, more, quickly, soon, slowly.

THE PREPOSITION

EXERCISE I

1. Point out the prepositions and preposition phrases in the following sentences:

2. State the object of the preposition, and tell in each case to what it is related:

1. He spoke to his father about it. 2. They are soft to the touch. 3. In the evening they crept up the ladder. 4. Two little leaves came up out of the pot. 5. We honour the men of olden times. 6. Have you been home since then? 7. I vouch for the truth of what they say. 8. Do you know the boy for whom this is intended?

9. I did not stop on account of the storm. 10. I did not stop on account of what he said. 11. They came from over the sea in large ships. 12. They searched the town over without finding him. 13. Loud laughter proceeded from within the house. 14. They stood in front of the house. 15. The book which you were asking for is gone. 16. Put it out of your mind. 17. Without removing his clothes he threw himself on a rude couch, and slept till after sunrise.

EXERCISE II

Supply suitable prepositions in the following blanks:

1. He gained some advantage ——— them. 2. I am not accountable ——— you ——— what I have done. 3. This is very different ——— the other. 4. He did not seem ——— ease ——— their presence. 5. Did you sympathize ——— them ——— their loss? 6. He bought it ——— the gallon and put it up ——— bottles. 7. He was accompanied ——— his friend. 8. Bear ——— me while I communicate the message ——— you. 9. They went ——— train ——— Toronto, and put up ——— the King Edward. 10. When I laid the facts ——— him, he complained ——— your conduct. 11. This house is to be sold ——— auction ——— Monday. 12. To encroach ——— the rights ——— others is an offence ——— the law. 13. He intrusted them ——— the money, but he intrusted the spending of it ——— me. 14. They prevailed ——— the enemy, but the chief could not prevail ——— them to continue the campaign. 15. He parted ——— his friends, and soon afterwards parted ——— his money. 16. Your answer is different ——— his. 17. I beg to differ ——— you on this matter. 18. We shall wait ——— them at the corner. 19. At this banquet the men waited ——— the ladies.

THE CONJUNCTION

Classes of conjunctions { Co-ordinate
Subordinate

EXERCISE I

Classify the conjunctions and conjunctive words and phrases in the following, and explain the use of each:

1. Either this man sinned or his parents. 2. I am old, and poor, and helpless. 3. I tell you that you will wrong yourselves if you take a penny from him. 4. I swear to you, by all which I believe, and by all which we believe in common. 5. The boys came soon, but we came sooner than they did. 6. They came as soon as they were able, but it was then too late. 7. This encounter was the most equal, as well as the best performed which had graced the day. 8. Let him name the ransom at which he rates our liberty, and it shall be paid, provided it is suited to our means. 9. When night comes, the land loses its heat very quickly, because it has not stored it up, and the land air grows cold; but the sea, which has been hoarding the sun-waves down in its depths, now gives them up to the atmosphere above it, and the sea air becomes warm and rises.

EXERCISE II

Classify the italicized words in the following as prepositions or conjunctive words, giving reasons in each case:

1. He arrived a few minutes *before* the teacher, but left *before* the school was opened. 2. Have you seen him *since* dinner? 3. I have not seen him *since* you were here. 4. He did not remain *for* dinner; *for* he had promised to return early. 5. He bought it *with what* I gave him. 6. All of these proposals *but* the last are clear, *but* are they *as* practical *as* they are clear? 7. The vanquished, *of whom* very few remained, escaped into the neighbouring wood. 8. I shall stay here *until* noon, *but* he will remain *until* you return. 9. *When* I was eating that truffle, I felt a glow *about* my heart *that* must have been gratitude, *though* that is an article in which I had not believed.

GENERAL EXERCISE

In each of the following sentences state with reasons which of the words in brackets is correct:

A.

1. Close the door (easy, easily). 2. The blossoms smell (sweet, sweetly). 3. They are coming (to help, for to help) us with

our home work. 4. Every one of the boys promised to do (his, their) work. 5. (Can, may) I leave at three o'clock? 6. How did you get along? (Good, well). 7. They did not do their work (like, as) we did ours. 8. I do not like (these, this) kind of pears. 9. If any boy needs a pen, I will lend (him, them) mine. 10. Each of the girls should make (her, their) own apron. 11. The dog (which, who) ran across the street is yours. 12. Ten years (is, are) a long time to wait. 13. Neither of the horses (is, are) tired. 14. Either the father or his son (is, are) to blame. 15. One of them (is, are) mine. 16. Your pen is different (than, from) mine. 17. None of (we, us) girls can go.

B.

1. If I (was, were) you, I should not leave. 2. You could (of, have) seen him yesterday. 3. He had (less, fewer) than a dozen marbles. 4. When she had baked the bread, she (lay, laid) down on the couch. 5. There (is, are) many people who think so. 6. You are the leader, not (he, him). 7. I believe that I (shall, will) be ready before you. 8. (Who, whom) do you expect to see there? 9. Each of us (has, have) many things for which to be thankful. 10. I am as busy as (he, him). 11. I resolved that he (should, would) do the work. 12. Of these two girls, which is the (tallest, taller?) 13. The number of mistakes (was, were) large. 14. You have not acted (like, as) you should. 15. Every one should like (his, their) own home best. 16. Will you divide the apples (between, among) (us, we) five boys?

CHAPTER XII

EXTRACTS FOR PRACTICE

THE extracts found in this Chapter may be used for various kinds of practice. While the following forms of exercise are suggested, the teacher will probably think of others which may be given from time to time: Analyse the sentence fully; select the subordinate clauses in the extract, and give the kind and relation of each; select other phrases and classify them; tell the part of speech and the relation of certain words; select and classify the verbs.

1. When he had gone downstairs, I remembered that I had dropped my glove in the Assembly Hall. So I went back, and, just as I was creeping up the passage left on one side of the great screen that goes nearly across the room, I saw the very same gentleman that had met me before.

—Gaskell, *Cranford* (adapted)

2. Through this scene of confusion, Cedric rushed in quest of Rowena, while the faithful Gurth, following him closely through the *mêlée*, neglected his own safety while he strove to avert the blows that were aimed at his master. The noble Saxon was fortunate enough to reach his ward's apartment just as she had abandoned all hope of safety.

—Scott, *Ivanhoe* (adapted)

3. A guard, who had been stationed in the outer or anteroom, and whose spirits were already in a state of alarm, took fright at Wamba's clamour, and, leaving the door open behind them, ran to tell the Templar that foemen had entered the old hall. Meantime the prisoners found no difficulty in making their escape into the anteroom, and from thence into the court of the castle, which was now the last scene of the contest.

—Scott, *Ivanhoe*

4. Lord M. replied that he considered himself highly fortunate in having been permitted to remain so long, and that if he could have secured a safe retreat, he would not have stirred till the French were at the gates.

5. He was conscious, as he heard the bells, of the quiet, cosy little room behind him filled with dusty old things that belonged to every period of his experiences—old college photographs, old books, old caps that his brother had won in different teams which his presence had honoured.

6. As he spoke she threw open the latticed window which led to the bartizan, and in an instant after, stood on the very verge of the parapet.

7. The apartment to which the Lady Rowena had been introduced was fitted up with some rude attempts at ornament, and her being placed there might be considered a peculiar mark of respect not offered to the other prisoners. But the wife of Front-de-Boeuf, for whom it had been originally furnished, was long dead, and decay and neglect had impaired the few ornaments with which her taste had adorned it.

8. She used to meet the little boys and girls as they came from school; she would borrow their books, and sit down to read till they returned. By this means she soon got more learning than any of her playmates had and laid a scheme for instructing those who were more ignorant than she was.

9. They had been waiting some time when a door at the other end of the room opened, and a large well-built man, who looked tall and straight like a mountain pine, came forward. He was not dressed in armour, but Cedric knew at once that it was Sir Rollin Dubois.

10. Sir Arthur and his daughter had set out to return home by the turnpike road; but, when they reached the head of the great lane, Miss Wardour proposed to her father that they should take another direction. As the weather was fine they decided to walk home by the sands, which stretched below a picturesque ridge of rocks.

11. She had impressed upon him anew that he was to lose no time in putting up bats or anything else; if he heard any noise, he was to run at it with his drawn sword. On my suggesting that some accident might occur from such slaughterous directions and that he might rush on Jenny getting up to wash, Mrs. Forrester said that she did not think that that was likely, because he was a very sound sleeper and generally had to be well shaken before they could rouse him.

—Gaskell, *Cranford*

12. To this day the inhabitants of the valley point out the place where the three drops of holy dew were cast into the stream, and trace the course of the Golden River under the ground, until it emerges in the Treasure Valley. At the top of the cataract of the Golden River are still to be seen two black stones, round which the waters howl mournfully every day at sunset.

13. People said, with considerable truth, that it was strange that two brothers, who were so continually together, should be so different. But when one knew Robert C. intimately, one discovered that he had been endeavouring all his days to acquire some of his brother's habits.

14. On a Monday morning he started out alone, thinking always as he went how he should persuade Princess Goldilocks to marry the king. In his pocket he carried a writing tablet, and whenever a happy thought occurred to him he dismounted from his horse and sat under the trees to write it, so that he might be sure not to forget anything which might be of use in his speech to the princess.

15. A soldier had served a king, his master, many years, till at last he was turned off without pay or reward. How he should get his living he did not know; but he set out and journeyed homeward all day, in a very downcast mood, until in the evening he came to the edge of a deep wood. He pushed forward, but had not gone far before he saw a light glimmering through the trees, toward which he bent his weary steps; soon he came to a hut where no one lived but an old witch.

16. When Tom recovered his strength, his duty told him that it was time to return to court. His mother opened the window, when the wind was blowing in the proper direction, and gave him a puff, which soon carried him to the king's palace.

17. Here again Hastings was pursued by the same fatality which had attended him ever since the day when he set foot on English ground. Any judicious adviser would have told him that the best thing which he could do would be to make an eloquent and affecting oration at the bar of the House; but that, if he could not trust himself to speak, and found it necessary to read, he ought to be concise.

18. When they arrived on the open heath, where Gurth might have had some trouble in finding his road, the thieves guided him straight forward to the top of a little eminence, whence he could see the palisades of the lists and the glimmering pavilions pitched at either end.

19. As he hastened forward, without ever pausing or looking behind, he by and by heard the sea roaring at a distance. At this sound, he increased his speed, and soon came to a beach, where the great surf-waves tumbled themselves upon the hard sand, in a long line of snowy foam. At one end of the beach, however, there was a pleasant spot, where some green shrubbery clambered up a cliff, making its rocky face look soft and beautiful.

20. What is remarkable in this vast movement in which so many millions were produced, and so many more were promised, was, that the great leaders of the financial world took no part in it.

21. Once the adventure was undertaken by a hero who had enjoyed very little peace or rest since he came into the world. At the time of which I am going to speak he was wandering through the pleasant land of Italy, with a mighty club in his hand, and a bow and quiver slung across his shoulders.

22. He was wrapt in the skin of the biggest and fiercest lion that had ever been seen: and though on the whole, he was kind, and generous, and noble, there was a good deal of the lion's fierceness in his heart. As he went on his way, he continually inquired whether that were the right road to the famous garden. But none of the country people knew anything about the matter, and many felt that they would have laughed at the question, if the stranger had not carried so very big a club.

23. But we could have borne all this, had not a fortune-telling gipsy come to raise us into perfect sublimity. The tawny sibyl no sooner appeared, than my girls came running to me for a shilling a-piece to cross her hand with silver. To say the truth, I was tired of being always wise, and could not help gratifying their request, because I loved to see them happy. I gave each of them a shilling, though for the honour of the family it must be observed that they never went without money themselves, as my wife always generously let them have a guinea each to keep in their pockets.

—Goldsmith, *The Vicar of Wakefield*

24. When I had thus finished, and my audience was retired, the gaoler, who was one of the most humane of his profession, hoped that I would not be displeased, observing that he must be obliged to remove my son into a stronger cell, but that he should be permitted to revisit me every morning. —Goldsmith, *The Vicar of Wakefield*

25. After my guests were recovered from the consternation my account had produced, I requested also that Mr. Jenkinson, a fellow-prisoner, might be admitted.

26. A footman entered while we were speaking, to tell us that the messenger was returned; and as I was by this time ready, I went down.

27. When the dreary days of winter and the early days of spring are passing away, and the warm bright sunshine has begun to pour down upon the glassy paths of the wood, who does not love to go out and bring home posies of violets, and bluebells, and primroses? We wander from one plant to another picking a flower here and a bud there, as they nestle among the green leaves. But did you ever stop to think, as you added flower after flower to your nosegay, how the plants which bear them have been building up their green leaves and their fragile buds during the last few weeks? If you had visited the same spot a month before, a few of last year's leaves, withered and dead, would have been all that you would have found.

28. When Hilda Covington was ten years old, she had, after a severe attack of scarlet fever, lost her hearing; and though her parents consulted the best specialists of the time, their remedies proved of no avail. At last they could only hope that in time, with

added health and strength, nature might repair the damage. A year after her illness Mr. Covington heard of an aurist who had a European reputation, and he and Mrs. Covington took Hilda over to him.

29. When they were bidding him farewell, Cilix burst into tears, and told his mother that it seemed just a melancholy dream to stay there in solitude. If she really believed that they would ever find Europa, he was willing to continue the search with them. But Telephassa bade him remain there and be happy, if his own heart would let him.

30. I know not how far Jason had travelled, when he came to a turbulent river, which rushed right across his pathway, with white foam among its black eddies, hurrying tumultuously onward, and roaring angrily as it went. Though it was not a very broad river in the dry seasons of the year, it was now swollen by heavy rains, so that Jason, prudently decided to pause upon the brink.

31. With these words she hobbled away, giving him a smile over her shoulder as she departed. Jason fancied that there was something very noble and majestic in her figure, and that, though her gait seemed to be a rheumatic hobble, yet she moved with the grace and dignity of a queen.

32. You are to know that many years before, King Pelias had been told by the Talking Oak of Dodona that a man with one sandal should cast him down from his throne. On this account he had strictly ordered that nobody should ever come into his presence unless both sandals were securely tied upon his feet; and he kept an officer in his palace whose sole business it was to examine people's sandals and to supply them with a new pair when the old ones began to wear out.

33. When Jason saw the malice and wickedness which King Pelias could not prevent from gleaming out of his eyes, he probably guessed that the king had discovered what he came for, and that he intended to turn his own words against himself.

34. The first thing that Jason thought of doing after he left the king's presence was to go to Dodona and inquire of the Talking Oak what course it was best to pursue.

35. One of the rowers was a beautiful young woman, named Atlanta, who had been nursed among the mountains by a bear.

36. Thus triumphantly did the *Argo* sail out of the harbour amidst the good wishes of everybody except the wicked old Pelias, who stood on a promontory, scowling at her, and wishing that he could blow out of his lungs the tempest of wrath that was in his heart.

37. If I were to tell you all the adventures of the Argonauts, it would take me till nightfall or longer. At a certain island they were hospitably received by King Cyzicus, its sovereign, who made a feast for them and treated them like brothers. But the Argonauts saw that this good king looked downcast, and they inquired of him what was the matter.

38. According to their account, the tree on which it hung was guarded by a terrible dragon, who never failed to devour at one mouthful every person who might venture within his reach.

39. He went a little farther, and by the way in which the red vapour now spouted forth, he judged that the creatures had got upon their feet. Now he could see glowing sparks and vivid jets of flame. At the next step, each of the beasts made the pasture echo with a terrible roar, while the burning breath, which they thus belched forth, lit up the whole field with a momentary flash.

40. If King Pluto had been cunning enough to offer Proserpina some fruit, it is very probable that she would soon have been tempted to eat it. But he left the matter entirely to his cook, who considered nothing fit to eat but rich pastry or spiced cakes, which Proserpina's mother had never given her.

41. When this whimsical chap
Had a river to pass,
If he couldn't get over
He stayed where he was.

42. She gazed upon the inner court,
Which in the tower's tall shadow lay;
Where courser's clang, and stamp, and snort,
Had rung the livelong yesterday.

43. Know'st thou not
That when the searching eye of heaven is hid
Behind the globe, and lights the lower world,
Then thieves and robbers range abroad unseen?
44. With an eye ever open—
A tongue that's not dumb,
And a heart that will never
To sorrow succumb—
You'll battle and conquer
Though thousands assail:
How strong and how mighty,
Who never say fail!
45. The hour is lovely when the west
Is all in golden splendour drest;
And lovely is the varying hue
That streaks the twilight depths of blue;
But lovelier is the cold moon's light,
Brightening through the spheres of night,
When every wind that whistles near
Pours melody upon the ear.
46. And high above there grow,
With intersecting trunks, from crag to crag,
Cedars and yews and pines, whose tangled hair
Is matted into one solid roof of shade
By the dark ivy's twine. —Shelley
47. As she fled fast through sun and shade,
The happy winds upon her played,
Blowing ringlets from the braid. —Tennyson
48. Had she been true,
If heaven would make me such another world
Of one entire and perfect chrysolite,
I'd not have sold her for it. —Shakespeare

INDEX

The figures refer to pages

- Active form of Verb, 117, 118
Adjective, The, 24, 44, 166
 Modifying noun, 24
 Clauses, 61
 Phrases, 62
 Classification of, 77
 Meaning, 77
 Form, 78
 Comparison of, 78, 166
 Classes of, 166
 Words partly adjectival, 166
 Exercises, 167-169
Adverb, The, 45, 169
 Classes of, 169
 Degrees, 169
 Exercises, 169-171
Adverbial clause of time, 24, 61
Adverbial conjunction, 24
Adverbial objective, 135, 136
Analysis, 35, 54
 Graphic, 56
Application, 13, 17, 20
Auxiliary and principal verb
 phrases, 106

Bare subject, 149
Bare predicate, 149

Case, 93-98, 158
 Nominative absolute, 132
 Uses of, 155
Classification, 4
 Nouns, 71
 Adjectives, 77, 78
 Verbs, 79
Clause, 61
 Noun, 61
 Adjective, 61
 Adverbial, 61
Comparison of adjectives, 78, 166
Complete and incomplete verbs,
 48, 80, 82

Completion, 51
 Subjective, 51
Complex sentence, 57 59, 60
Compound sentence, 61
Conjunction, 67, 172
 Relating function of, 68
 Classes of, 172
 Exercises, 172-173
Conjunctive adverb, 16
Conjunctive pronouns, 73
Connectives, 47
Continuation School, Form V,
 130
Correction of sentences, 126
Course, Form III, 27, 38
Course, Form IV, 48

Declarative sentences, 27, 32
Deductive reasoning, 13, 14
Definition, 17, 18
Dependent statement, 58, 59, 60
Derived forms, 89
 Root-words, 91
Developing lesson, 14, 19
Development, 12, 16, 21
Difficulties, How to deal with,
 120-129

Errors and Difficulties, How to
 Deal with, 120-129
 Use simpler examples, 122
 Fill in ellipsis, 124
 Change order of words, 125
 Examine the functions, 125
 Correction of sentences, 126
Exclamatory sentences, 27
Exercises, 144-174
 Sentence, The, 144-148
 Parts of the sentence, 149-151
 Parts of Speech, 151
 Subordinate clauses, 152-153
 Kinds of phrases, 153-154

- Noun, The, 154
 Classes, 154
 Inflections, 155
 Uses of Cases, 155
 Exercises, 155-158
 Pronoun, The, 158
 Classes, 158
 Inflections, 158
 Exercises, 159-160
 Verb, The, 161
 Classes, 161
 Inflections, 161
 Phrases, 161
 Verbals with double function, 161
 Exercises, 162-166
 Adjective, The, 24, 44, 166-169
 Exercises, 167-169
 Adverb, The, 45, 169-171
 Exercises, 169-171
 Preposition, The, 63, 65, 171
 Exercises, 171-172
 Conjunction, The, 172
 Exercises, 172-173
 General Exercises, 173-174
 Explanation, 13, 17
 Expletive, The, 141, 151
 Extracts for Practice, 175-183

 Form, 23-25
 Function, 23-25

 General Exercises, 144-174
 Gerundial infinitive, 87, 139

 Imperative mood, 104
 Imperative sentences, 27, 32
 Incomplete verbs, 48, 80, 82
 Indicative mood, 104
 Inductive reasoning, 13, 14
 Infinitive, 83-86
 Lesson, 83
 Gerundial, 87, 139
 Inflected forms, 91, 92
 Inflection, 4, 23, 88
 Inflection:
 Verb, 91, 92, 98, 99
 Nouns and pronouns, 93, 155, 158
 Interjection, 151
 Interrogative sentences, 27, 32
 Intransitive verbs, 25, 82

 Kinds of sentence, 57

 Language, 2, 4
 Lesson outlines, 27
 Lesson, Other Kinds of, 18
 Lessons:
 Participle, 10
 Sentence, 28
 Classes of, 31
 Parts of sentence, 33
 Noun, 38
 Verb, 40
 Modifiers, 41
 Adverb, 45
 Complete and Incomplete Verbs, 48
 Object and Subjective Completion, 51
 Simple and complex sentences, 57
 Noun clauses, 61
 Preposition, 63, 65
 Conjunction, 67
 Relative or conjunctive pronouns, 73
 Pronouns—Topical Review, 75
 Adjective:
 Meaning, 77
 Form or comparison, 78
 Verbs, 79
 Infinitive, 83
 Derived forms, 89
 Inflected forms, 91
 Number, 93
 Case, 93
 Mood, 101
 Auxiliary and principal verbs, 106
 Progressive and perfect verb phrases, 111
 Passive verb phrases, 115
 Nominative absolute case, 132
 Adverbial objective, 135
 Objective predicate, 136
 Expletive, 141
 Linking verb, 82

 Meaning of grammar, 23
 Method of grammar, 10
 Modifiers, 41, 44

- Mood, 101
 - Indicative, 104
 - Subjunctive, 104
 - Imperative, 104
- Name, 12, 16, 21
- Nominative absolute case, 92, 132
- Nominative absolute construction, 134
- Noun, 24, 154
 - Subjective completion, 24
 - Object of verb, 24
 - Clause, 61
 - Classification of, 71
 - Proper, Common, 72, 154
 - Gender, 72, 154
 - Collective, 72, 154
 - Classes of, 154
 - Inflections of, 155
 - Uses of cases, 155
 - Exercises, 155-158
- Number, 93, 99, 158
- Object and subjective completion, 51
- Objective case, 131
- Objective predicate, 136
 - Objective predicate noun, 138
 - Objective predicate adjective, 138
- Participle, 10, 12, 13, 14, 19
- Parts of Speech, 38, 151
 - Classification of, 71
 - Nouns, 71
 - Pronouns, 72
 - Adjectives, 77
 - Verbs, 79
 - Exercises, 151
- Passive verb phrases, 117, 118
- Person, 99
- Phrase, 61, 62
 - Noun, verb, adjective, adverb, 62
 - Verb, 106
 - Active, 117
 - Passive, 117
 - Kinds of, 153
 - Pronoun, preposition, conjunction, 153
 - Exercises, 154
 - Predicate, 34, 149
 - Preparation, 10, 15, 19
 - Preposition, 63, 171
 - Lessons, 63, 65
 - Relating function of, 65, 66, 67
 - Exercises, 171-172
 - Presentation, 11, 15
 - Principal verb phrases, 106
 - "May," "will," "shall," "might," "should," "would," 109
 - Problem, 10, 15
 - Pronouns, 72, 158
 - Classification of, 72, 158
 - Relative or conjunctive, 72, 73
 - Review lesson—topical, 75
 - Classes of, 158
 - Inflections, 158
 - Exercises, 159-160
 - Relating, 11, 15
 - Relation, 23
 - Relative pronouns, 72-74
 - Review lesson—topical, 19
 - Root-words, 91, 93
 - Scope of grammar, 3
 - Selecting, 11, 15
 - Sentence, The, 28
 - Lesson, 28
 - Classes of, 31, 144
 - Declarative, 32
 - Interrogative, 32
 - Imperative, 32
 - Parts of, 33, 149
 - Subject and predicate of, 34
 - Kinds of, 57
 - Simple and complex, 57, 59, 60
 - Compound, 61
 - Exercises, 144-148
 - Simple sentence, 57, 59, 60
 - Speech, parts of, 38, 151
 - Noun, 38
 - Verb, 40
 - Modifiers, 41
 - Adjective, 44
 - Adverb, 45
 - Connectives, 47

- Classification of, 71
 - Nouns, 71
 - Pronouns, 72
 - Adjectives, 77
 - Meaning, 77
 - Form, 78
 - Verbs, 79
- Steps in developing lesson, 14
- Steps in lesson, 10
- Subject, 34, 149
- Subjective completion, 5
- Subjunctive mood, 104
- Subordinate clause, 24, 60, 61, 62, 152
 - Exercises, 152-153
- Suggestions, 22
 - Proper preparations, 22
 - Material ready, 22
 - Work concrete, 22
 - Reviews, 23
 - Emphasize function, 23
 - Select examples carefully, 25
 - Typical examples, 25
 - Strongly-marked examples, 26
- Syntax, 4
- Tense, 24, 98
 - Present, 24, 98
 - Past, 24
 - Future, 25, 98
 - Of verbs, 98
- Transitive verbs, 25, 82
- Use of text-book, 20
- Uses of "shall" and "will," 109, 110
- Uses of "may," "might," "should," and "would," 112.
- Uses of Case, 155
- Verbal noun, 86
- Verbs, 79, 161
 - Complete and incomplete, 48, 80, 82
 - Object and subjective completion of, 51
 - Transitive, 25, 82
 - Intransitive, 25, 82
 - Linking, 82
 - Derived forms, 89
 - Inflected forms, 91, 92, 98, 99
 - Inflection, 98
 - Tense, 98
 - Person, number, and agreement, 99
 - Singular and plural forms, 100
 - Mood, 101
 - Auxiliary and principal, 106
 - Classes, 161
 - Inflections, 161
 - Verb phrases, 161
 - Verbals with double function, 161
 - Exercises, 162-166
- Verb phrases, 106-119
 - Auxiliary and principal, 106, 108
 - Uses of "shall" and "will," 109, 110
 - Progressive and perfect, 111
 - Emphatic verb phrase, 112
 - Uses of "may," "might," "should," and "would," 112
 - Subjunctive verb phrase, 112.
 - Passive verb phrases, 115, 117, 118
 - Active form of verb, 117, 118
 - Review, 119
 - Classes of, 161
- Visual aids, 23
 - "When," 24
 - "Where," 24
- Words—Different values, 25







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